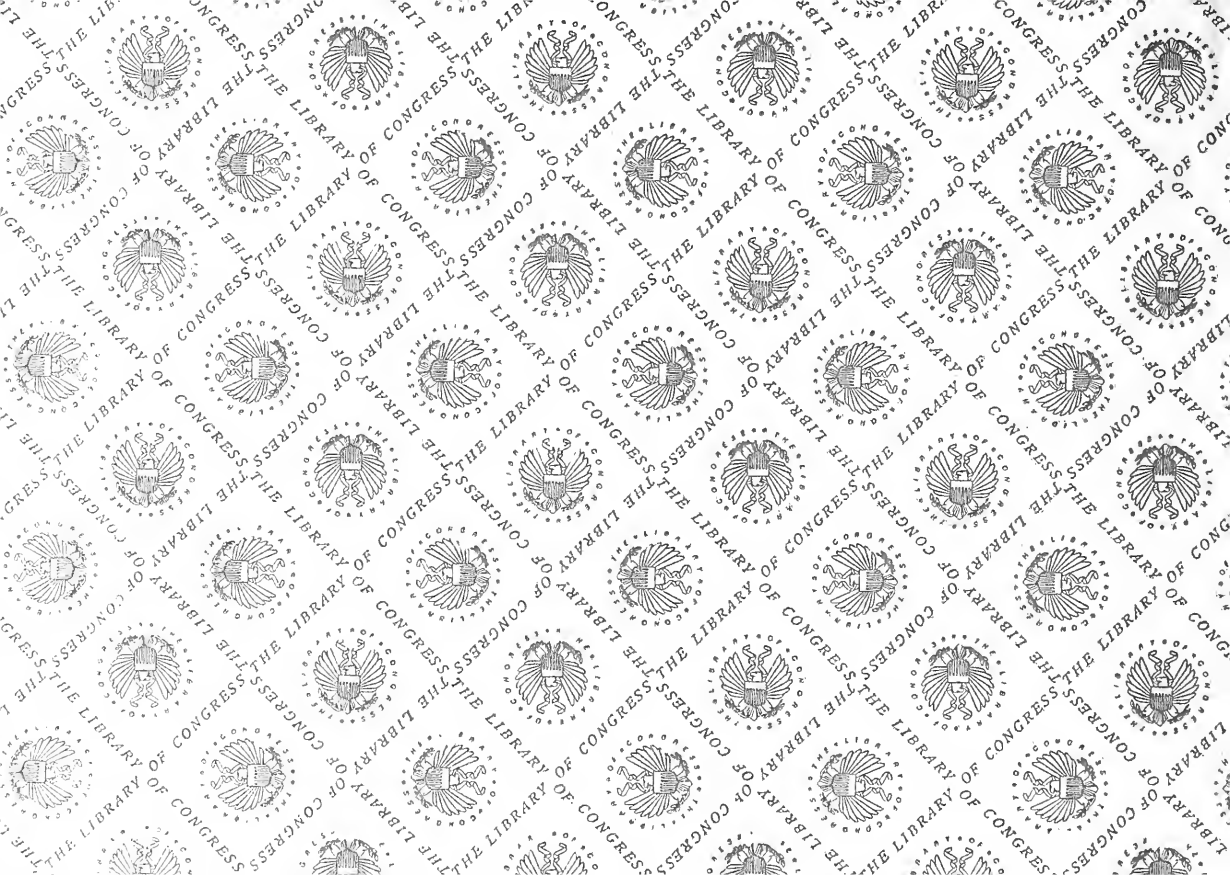
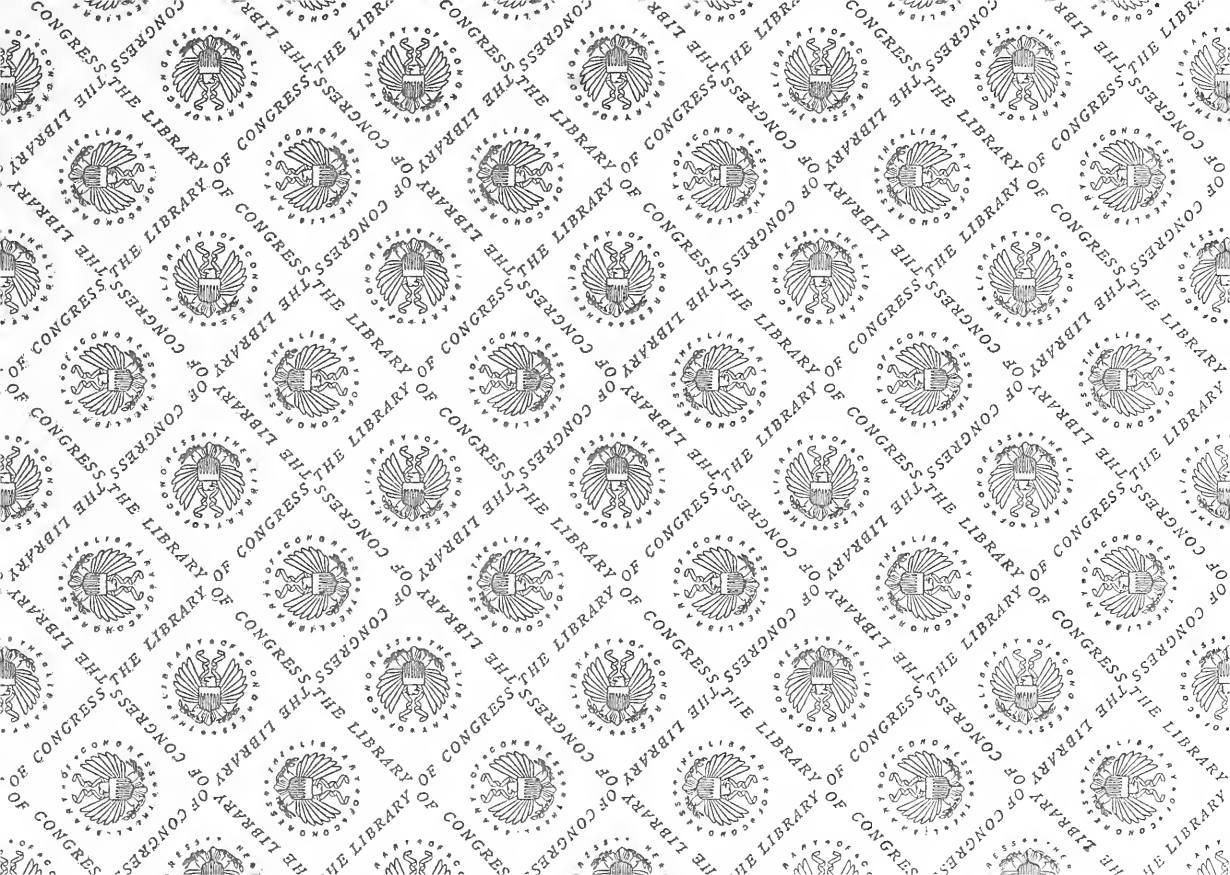


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ESSENTIALS OF HISTORY

AND

HISTORICAL CHART SYSTEM

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PREFACE

While it is essentially true that there is no royal road to learning, it is equally true that the acquisition of knowledge may be greatly facilitated by the methods employed. Such methods are designed, not as an escape from the labor that true learning involves, but the saving of unnecessary labor and the placing of facts and processes before the mind for a clearer and quicker apprehension.

This is the aim of the present volume, especially by the chart system. It is not necessary to point out the value of such a system as a mode of instruction. It is an objective method of study designed to interest, simplify and emphasize by analysis and centralization of the historic facts and movements. The seventeen charts of this system present in a condensed form the pathway of history and civilization from the beginning of written history to the present time. They gather about great central facts, nations and developments, that the student may see at a glance the onward march of the race in its struggles and triumphs. Passing from chart to chart the centuries lie unfolded, and the process of the historic evolution is easily grasped and analyzed. It is scarcely necessary to point out how the consulting of any of the charts is

both a convenience and a saving of time and labor. True knowledge consists, not so much in remembering certain detail, but the accumulation of such into a system, or the proper apprehension of the world's movements and processes under determining principles.

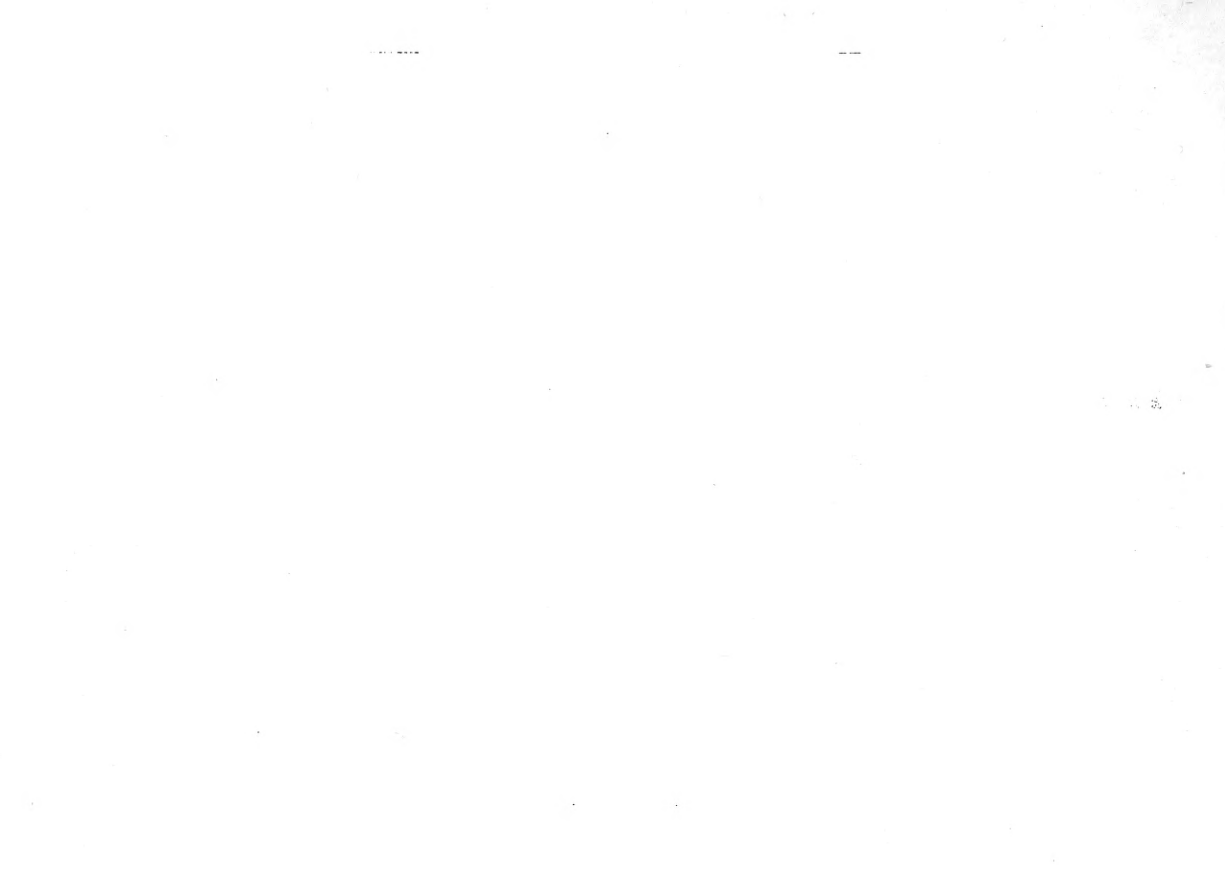
Accompanying the charts is a discussion of the subject matter in a manner both to furnish a key to the charts and to set forth the essentials of history. We leave the great mass of particulars to the text books in use, but direct the attention to the significance of those facts, the steps by which man has struggled upward and the causes that have operated in the unfolding of the age.

The small charts being a reduction of the large ones for use in the schoolroom renders doubly valuable the use of the latter by the teacher by placing the system in the hands of the student for constant reference.

The plan and scope of the work will at once appear to both teacher and pupil as supplementary and at the same time enlarging the historic view.

J. R. K.

Oak Park, Ills.



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Nations of Antiquity

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New Theban Empire.

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Rameses II. Climax of Egyptian monarchy.

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3. Closing Egyptian rule during 30th dynasty.

Period Persian rule during 31st dynasty.

Conquered by Alexander, 332.

China—Land of Traditions

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2. Chin, 255-206.

3. Han, 206-190.

4. Tang, 618-905 A.D.

5. Mongol, 1215-1368.

6. Ming, 1368-1650.

Civilization

Government. A patri-

archal monarchy.

Literature. The Nine

Classics—basis of edu-

cation. Influence

of traditionalism.

Education. Ancient

memorizing methods

still prevalent.

Religion.

Confucianism.

An ethical system.

Taoism. Lao Tze.

Buddhism. 216 B.C.

Art.

Sculpture, clay-mod-

eling, wood-carving.

Painting 8th cent. A.D.

**Early
Civilizations**

Influence

Priests teachers of Greek philosophers.

Government

The king a god, absolute ruler. The land his.

Religion

King the high priest. Book of the Dead.

Civilization

Pyramids, Temples, Palaces. Mira-

cles of art. The stone civilization.

Science Study of the heavens. Division of

time by the Sun. Basis of calendar.

Sculpture Statues of gods, kings, animals.

The Rosetta Stone

India—Land of Sacred Books

1. Plains of Indus settled 2000 B.C.

2. Settlement on Ganges 1000 or 1500 B.C.

3. From Alexander to the present time.

Alexander defeated Porus, 327 B.C.

Seleucus Nicator received India.

New Kingdom under Ghandra Supti, 315 B.C.

British conquest 2000 years after Alexander.

Civilization

Literature. The Vedas, sacred Aryan Books.

Religion and Philosophy. The Vedic Religion.

Brahminical Pantheism. Buddhism, 500 B.C.

Art. Essentially religious. Architecture from

250 B.C. Buddhistic school of sculpture.

Painting dates from the first century A.D.

Pottery and working in gold.

Essentials of History

ANCIENT ERA.—NATIONS OF ANTIQUITY

I. THE PHILOSOPHY OF HISTORY.

At the beginning of these studies let us be sure that we understand our subject. Emerson has said that history is only biography. But that simplifies the real question only in a measure. If the study of history is but the study of the individual, the social unit, the question remains, how are we to understand the individual; how connect the particular facts with general principles?

The last statement distinguishes the deeper meaning of history. History is something more than a series of events, something more than a string of historical beads with the string ignored or left out of account. The philosophy of history is the relation of particular events to their underlying causes and conditions. Not until this relation is discovered, and the processes by which certain things have become inevitable are understood can it be said that history has been invested with its true meaning. To understand why certain things operative in the Roman state produced certain necessary results is not only to grasp their significance in regard to Rome, but to reach that larger generalization, *i. e.*, that the

same causes operative elsewhere under similar conditions will produce similar results. The principles and conditions that determined the French Revolution would bring about an American or an English Revolution on the general principle already formulated, that like causes under similar circumstances produce like results.

When it is said that "the whole of history is in one man" several things are suggested: the first is, that the whole simply expresses the characteristics of the parts. The individual man is the measure of a community of men. The nation, composed of individuals, is subject to the law of individuals. It must pass through its various evolutions from infancy to youth, maturity and old age under the same determining laws as govern individual development. We no more look for the civilization of the Elizabethan Age in the time of Alfred the Great than we would expect the boy to produce Shakespeare's Hamlet. If we understand the processes by which the individual life passes on from stage to stage then we have the key to the history of the race in its struggles, defeats and triumphs, moving under the impulse of a common human law.

What we wish to emphasize is, that the study of history can

mean little or nothing to us unless we invest the particular effects with their causal significance, or discover the grounds of these historic expressions. Watching these seeds in their germination, understanding the environments and the operation of forces upon that hidden life, we shall look for the bud, the blossom and flower as necessary stages in the process. The root may lie in Egypt and the flower appear in Greece, but it is the peculiar interest that attaches to this all-important study that we follow these movements from nation to nation, from age to age, in order to properly articulate the parts, and thus intelligently interpret the present by all the contributions of the past.

II. RISE OF CIVILIZATIONS.

The student will note the central fact of Chart I. About it gather all the interests of this early period. Man has evolved from his pre-historic state. Primitive man wrote his history in the form of tools and weapons and left much for us to decipher from his habitation and his graves. We see him as he passes through the Paleolithic, or the Old Stone Age, the Neolithic, or the New Stone Age, the Bronze Age and Iron Age, each period distinguishing a larger intelligence, and a better adaptation to his surroundings. By these early remains we can see how man struggled out of his primitive state into that of civilization. For this pre-historic period Science has been unable to fix a date. A new step must be taken in passing from the pre-historic to the historic, *i. e.*, the invention of

writing and the written records of human events. These denote the new period that we call historic.

III. EGYPT—BEGINNING OF WRITTEN HISTORY.

The location and physical conditions of a land have much to do with the history of its people. It may be isolated, limiting its communication with other nations and depriving it of the advantage of intercourse. Instead of expanding by means of contact it would become self-centered and contracted in its development. If, on the other hand, it holds a central position, and its surroundings are such as to enable it to come into relations with other states, the whole order of its life is altered by the new conditions of communication and the new demands made upon it by its neighbors. Thus the geographical is an important factor in national life and development. Had Egypt been differently situated with reference to Mediterranean states her history would not have been the same, as her contact with Rome and Greece would have been different. How much easier it was for Rome to affect her interests than it was for Babylon. Alexandria could never have become such a civilizing center had it been located in the heart of Africa.

The same is true regarding internal conditions. Egypt would have been impossible without the Nile, her very life. Had there been no Nile there would have been no Egypt. And being so essential to the life of the people, in their religious system it is invested with a divine character, became a leading deity, and hence enters into the ideas and civilization of the

people. Thus we can understand something of the consternation that seized the Egyptians when at the time of the Jewish Exodus the plague of turning the Nile to blood was visited upon them. It gave rise to a new question; the problem of a greater power or Deity than the Nile confronted them. All these things enter essentially into a nation's life and through its civilization eventually leaves its impress upon the whole world.

Again, by natural provisions a nation is enabled to develop along particular lines. Had great quarries not been accessible to the Egyptians that great "stone civilization" would never have appeared. To appreciate this fact it is only necessary to compare the Egyptian achievements with the Babylonian. The latter limited by natural conditions, as the former were not, must develop in another way.

In our study of Egypt the questions of first importance with us are: What were her ruling principles? What was her contribution to human life and civilization? Her dynasties have passed away, but what dynamic forces persist?

1. *The Three Great Periods.*

(1.) *The Memphite Period.*

That Egyptian antiquity might be carried back to 8000 B. C. is the view of many scholars. Great in her antiquity, she was also great in her creations. The 70 pyramids on the west of the Nile are still standing testimonies to her tremendous activities. The ages look down upon them in their massiveness.

But this "solidified history" is the expression of what is deeper and more vital than all the mystery of their construction. We stand in wonder before these colossal monuments of architecture and speculate as to how the Egyptian managed to rear them. But there is a greater fact than that. Not *how*, but *why* did they build them? Of what ideas were these but the expression, and in what measure did such ideas dominate the life and thought of the people? That the great pyramid, Cheops, was a tomb embodying a fundamental idea is of more importance than the fact that upon it 100,000 men labored for 20 years, and contains 2,300,000 blocks of stone.

(2.) *The Theban Period.*

For 500 years of this period Egypt was ruled by the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings—the word Hyksos being derived from the Egyptian Hyk, a king, and Sos, a shepherd. This Asiatic horde invaded Egypt about 2100 B. C.

The evidence is quite convincing that Joseph the Israelite was made prime minister of Egypt by a Hyksos King, while Jacob, his father, and his brethren were settled comfortably in Goshen. This line of kings on the throne would be much more favorable to this settlement of the Israelites than if Egyptian kings ruled. The account in Genesis states that Joseph advised his father, if asked by Pharaoh as to their occupation, to say that they were shepherds, which was also the truth. But the Egyptians hated shepherds and the Jews because they were under the dominion of these foreign invaders.

Perhaps nothing in the whole Egyptian history is of greater significance than this settlement of the Israelites in the land for an extended period. It distinguishes the relation of the nation to one of the most important facts in history. No other nation was destined to exert such an influence upon mankind as the Jewish race. Divinely selected to bring to the world a monotheistic religion and finally the Messiah, it was necessary that they should be removed from Palestine until they had grown to be a nation and thus be separated from the idolatrous races of Canaan. Egypt furnished them a home under favorable conditions in which to develop and become sufficiently strong to take the land given to Abraham, the father of the nation. Again, being despised by the Egyptians and isolated in Goshen they were preserved from commingling with that idolatrous people. Famine drove them to Egypt, but it was equally important that they should return to Palestine at the proper time and be broken away from their happy and prosperous condition in Goshen when the new generation might be inclined to forget that their stay in Egypt was but temporary and for providential purposes. To break up this interest in their peaceful sojourn a Pharaoh arose who knew not Joseph, and a persecution was instituted. In other words, the Hyksos domination came to an end. The foreigners were expelled about 1500 B. C., and Egyptian kings again came to the throne. Under the severe persecution it needed only a Moses to lead them forth now a strong nation, and forty years later, under Joshua, became installed in their own land.

It was during this Theban period that the glories of the

Egyptian monarchy culminated. During the nineteenth dynasty (1440-1270), the nation advanced to greater glory than was secured during the eighteenth when the empire was extended and every city was decorated with palaces and temples and other testimonials to the deeds of the kings. In the nineteenth dynasty fall the great achievements of Seti I, both his victories and the construction of some of the greatest monuments of ancient art. He was followed by Rameses II the Great, the Sesostris of Herodotus. During his brilliant reign of sixty-seven years the Egyptian monarchy came to its glorious consummation.

(3.) The Saiite Period.

With this period the greatness of the empire passes away and comes to its close. During the reign of Necho II (610-595), the nation is brought into conflict with Judah (2 Kings xxiii-xxiv), whom he defeated and in turn was defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, who at the same time captured Jerusalem.

During a period of 8,000 years or more Egypt rose to her zenith, while her declension and fall required but one-seventh of that time. The fall of a nation is, in some respects, as important an event to the world at large as its rise or progress. It was an event fraught with the greatest significance, when Alexander the Great conquered Egypt in 332 B. C. A new civilization was ruling the world and was to be given a new expression in Alexandria, following Athens, where mighty intellectual forces should meet in conflict with Christianity, and

where victories should be won as they never were in the intellectual center of Greece. Thus the fall of a nation might mark its greatest moment in its world-wide relation.

Questions.

1. What periods and dynasties were represented by the three great periods?
2. What were the distinctive features of the fourth dynasty?
3. In what respects did the twelfth dynasty become distinguished?
4. By what king were the Hyksos expelled from Egypt?
5. State some of the great military exploits of Seti I. What were some of his great architectural and engineering constructions?
6. In what manner did Psammetichus relieve the nation, and in what way did Grecian influence manifest itself under his reign?
7. For how long a period was Egypt subjected to Persian rule?

2. Civilization—Ruling Ideas.

Ideas and principles in childhood are seeds out of sight, awaiting their fruition in coming years. The race was a child in Egypt. What has she contributed to our maturity? The development of the race is a growth stepping upon lower rungs

upon which it should never remain, but without which it could never climb.

Protected on the west by an impassable desert, and on the east by the Red Sea for a great period Egypt was protected from surrounding nations during which time they were enabled to develop a civilization that was destined to exercise an influence for centuries over Europe and the East.

(1.) As the teacher of Greek philosophers.

Nations like individuals can do through others what they could never have done by themselves. The world through Europe was enriched by the Saracenic civilization, the great intellectual result of the Crusades. Egyptian priests stimulated the Grecian mind that created the most brilliant intellectual civilization in human history. Egypt "lit the torch of civilization and passed it on to the West."

(2.) Government and Religion.

Basic governmental ideas were determined by the religious. The King was a god. As such it was only proper that he should be the high priest of the nation, and as a god the land belonged to him, subject to certain division. The feudal system that prevailed is to be found in some of its features in Europe at a later day.

The most dominant fact of Egyptian life was the religious. A religious nature is the ground of religious expressions. It is constitutional in human nature. No set of conditions or

circumstances ever created it with similar conditions perpetuating it. In the earliest days of the race this fact is established. The nature persists in all races, the ideas and forms may be different. The race may undergo radical changes, but it has never outgrown what was the deepest fact in Egyptian life.

In the Book of the Dead, the Bible of Egypt, we see how deeply rooted was the idea of immortality. It exercised a powerful influence over their life. It built pyramids and temples, miracles of workmanship. The religious stamped itself upon the head of the nation, the Nile and various animals. It commanded supreme attention. Thus this early history, from the very dawn of civilization, teaches us what is constitutional in our life. Out of it grew the embalming system, believing as they did that the immortality of the soul depended upon the preservation of the body.

(3.) Architecture.

It is stamped throughout with magnitude and sublimity. In these qualities it has persisted all down the ages challenging future civilizations to exceed it. It has made impressions never to be effaced. We cross the seas to stand in the presence of these mighty monuments that we might see the race at its best in this type of achievement. After Egypt, man will build his temples of religion in every age, and compel the marble in one form or another to express his ideas and ideals.

(4.) Egypt's great bequest to the future.

It lay in the discovery of writing and paper making. One of her most useful productions was the papyrus reed. From it many things were constructed, but its most valuable use was the manufacture of paper.

Egypt was thus the first to record her history and passed the art on to others. The result is comprehended in the term "History."

Topics for Study.

There is a twofold purpose in suggesting topics for study.

1. *As a Help to Teacher and Pupil.*

Supplementary work is a feature in the school system of to-day, especially in the assignment of topics for additional investigation, thus giving the pupil essential training in personal research. Hence the topics for study in connection with these studies. What is equally important is the bibliography. It is a common experience that pupils are at a loss to know where to seek the necessary information, and in applying to the public library are not always directed to the proper sources. It is our aim to obviate this difficulty as much as possible and facilitate the gathering of the desired material.

2. *As a help to Study Circles, the Woman's Club, and such organizations engaged in historical study.*

Methods of procedure by such societies are often mistaken by failing to recognize the fact that history is a unit, that is,

that the world's life and civilization have proceeded from point to point through the ages and can be truly understood only by following the historical stream. Before taking up particular countries or periods, detaching them from their larger relations, they should be seen fundamentally as parts of the whole in the historic movement in which they inhere. By the means of the Charts, the general discussion and topics suggested, a plan of definite study is provided furnishing a sound and necessary basis for all special studies that might afterwards be pursued.

We submit the following topics on Egypt:

1. Beginnings of Egyptian History. Maspero's *Dawn of Civilization*. *History of all Nations*, Vol. I, 1-60.
2. Original Sources of Egyptian Literature and History. Sheldon's *General History*, pp. 10-15, and West's *Ancient History*, pp. 35-38. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 113, 136.
3. Discovery of the Remains of the First Three Egyptian Dynasties. *The Atlantic Monthly* for Oct., 1900.
4. Period of the Hyksos Kings. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 29, 46, 61. Was Joseph prime minister at this time? Sayce's *Higher Criticism and the Monuments*, pp. 215-233.
5. The Period of Rameses II. Represented in Eber's interesting novel *Uarda*.
6. Religion and Mythology. Maspero's *Dawn of Civilization* and *The Beliefs of Mankind*, pp. 90-102. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 53 ff.
7. Egyptian Architecture. Fergusson's *History of Architecture*. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 74-107, 271-322.

8. Egyptian Arts and Education. Erman's *Life in Ancient Egypt*.

9. *Manners and Customs of Egypt*, by Wilkinson.

10. The Papyrus Reed and Manufacture of Paper. *Progress of Nations*, Vol. I, pp 71-72.

11. The Rosetta Stone—the Key to Egyptian Treasures. This subject will introduce the important study of Archeology, by which we have been brought to the very sources of much of our knowledge of ancient times. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 40, 108, xxi, 33.

IV. CHINA—THE LAND OF TRADITIONS.

Ancient China had an area a little less than one-half of the United States, or about 1,500,000 square miles. The China of to-day has an area one and one-fourth times larger than that of the United States and sustains a population of 400,000,000.

The early history of China is obscure. It is with the Middle Kingdom that ancient history is largely concerned. Isolated by the surrounding mountains and deserts the people were practically shut in to themselves and prevented from intercourse with other races. The result was that the nation was denied the opportunity of interchange both in products and ideas. From these circumstances China furnishes us the "unique opportunity of studying at first hand an ancient civilization practically untouched by modern ideas."

From the text-books the student will get the details relating to the early settlement about 3000 B. C. and founding of the

nation; that the Chow Dynasty is the beginning of authentic history and maintained the feudal system for 900 years; that in the Chin Dynasty this system was abolished, the Great Wall 1500 miles long was built and that Prince Cheng destroyed all books and scholars believing them to be productive of evil; that in the Han Dynasty libraries were restored and Buddhism introduced; that the Tang Dynasty extended the empire and its commerce, developed the art of printing by blocks, and Mohammedanism was introduced; that in the Mongol Dynasty the Kins and Sung were conquered, and laws, literature, commerce and public works greatly developed; that the Ming Dynasty is the beginning of modern China, that Hung-Wu cast off the Mongol yoke and founded the New Dynasty. Thus we have a condensed statement of the six great Dynasties. The student is referred to the chart for the periods which these dynasties embrace.

Questions.

1. By whom, according to native traditions, was China settled?
2. Who was the first of the "Five Rulers" of the mythical period, and what was his distinction?
3. What are some of the things said to be accomplished by these legendary rulers?
4. When did authentic Chinese history begin? What were the developments of the Chow Dynasty, and what was the state of things when Confucius was born?

5. From what did China derive its name? What four great things happened under the rule of Prince Cheng?

6. What was added to the empire during the Han Dynasty?

7. What did the conquests of the Tang Dynasty do for the extension of the empire?

8. Under what Dynasty did the empire attain to its highest development, and what were some of the gains of this period?

Civilization—Ruling Principles.

This Mongolian race presents to us ancient life from several different angles with one outstanding fact that teaches its own lesson.

1. Government.

In this patriarchal monarchy the emperor stands in the relation of a father to his people. It is impossible for him to be an absolute despot, for his power is restricted to the ancient laws and customs.

2. Religion.

Three systems have existed in China.

(1.) Confucianism. This has been the leading religion, based on the teachings of Confucius (551-478). It is a religion cast in an ethical form, and hence is more ethical than religious.

(2.) Taoism. The founder of this system was Lao Tze, a contemporary of Confucius. One distinction is that at first it opposed idolatry. Lao Tze taught asceticism. The system be-

came degraded, being reduced by its priests to jugglery, fortune-telling, and the like.

(3.) Buddhism. This religion was introduced 216 B. C. In its doctrine of immortality, true believers escape all pain and sorrow, existing in a blissful and hallowed land in the West. Like Taoism it has been degraded by the priests, who for corrupt purposes have invested it with all sorts of superstition.

3. Education.

Ancient methods of 2000 years ago are still in vogue, such as the memorizing system and that of symbolic writing. Those who fail to secure official positions, for which education is the main incentive, find a place among the teaching and clerical classes.

4. Literature.

All learning is based upon the "Nine Classics," five of which were prepared by Confucius, and four by his disciples and others. The Chinese have distinguished themselves as narrative and topographical writers. By inventing engraved blocks for printing another means was furnished for the extension and preservation of knowledge.

5. Art.

This consists of sandstone sculptures, while from ancient times they have worked in wood-carving and clay-modeling. Painting dates from the 8th century A. D.

6. Traditionalism.

This is the one distinctive fact of Chinese history and civilization—her reverence for tradition. We have already seen how that great states teach us great truths. We learn from the positively evil as well as from the positively good. At this shrine of traditionalism the Chinese have knelt throughout the ages. It made him an imitator but destroyed his originality, or at least has restricted its exercise. It has cramped his mind and dwarfed his literary development. It has left an ancient civilization untouched by modern ideas. It has blinded him to the good in other systems, for he points with pride to the antiquity of his institutions. What it has done for him in the way of nationality and the exemplification of certain virtues it has also stagnated him in the great onward movement in the world's progress. Thus we get at the underlying cause of this historic spectacle, and it stands before the world as an object lesson, an attitude of mind inimical to the law of progressive development. This fact is emphasized when we place modern Japan in contrast with modern China.

Topics for Study.

For the history of China, Giles' *Historic China* and Williams' *Middle Kingdom* are recommended.

1. The Great Wall of China. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 341.

2. The attempt to destroy traditional influence during the Chin Dynasty.

3. The Golden Period—the Han Dynasty. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 342.

4. The historic movement from 618 to 1650 A. D.

5. The Chinese language. Walters' *Essays on the Chinese Language*.

6. Chinese Literature. *A History of Chinese Literature* by Giles.

7. Chinese Art. Giles' *Strange Stories from a Chinese Studio*.

8. Religion. Legge's *Life and Teachings of Confucius*; *The Beliefs of Mankind*, pp. 186-198. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 334, 339.

9. Present Tendencies in China. What are the indications of an awakening? *History of All Nations*, Vol. XX, 433; XXIII, 382.

V. INDIA—THE LAND OF SACRED BOOKS.

What was true of China regarding her isolation by natural conditions was also true of India, and hence we may look for the development of a civilization peculiarly its own.

Historical.

There are three distinct historical periods:

1. That of the Aryan invaders, who settled in the Plains of the Indus about 2000 B. C. These Indo-Europeans probably

migrated from central Asia and belonged to the race that created the Persian kingdom, were the ancestors of the Greeks and the founders of Rome.

2. The settlement on the Ganges from 1500 to 1000 B. C. Some place this settlement at the former, others at the latter date. It was during this period that the caste system arose. It was at first distinguished on the basis of color on account of the mixture of races. This system represents four classes: soldiers and rulers; Brahmins or priests; farmers and merchants; laborers and mechanics.

3. Greek-Roman and British periods. As in the case of Egypt the time has come for a great change to occur in the history and development of this people, and that by the same power. When Alexander entered the Punjab, in 327 B. C., and defeated Porus, new conditions arose. At his death, when his empire was divided between his four generals, India fell to Seleucus Nicator, who established the Syrian monarchy.

In 315 B. C., a new kingdom arose under Chandra Gupta, who received from Seleucus the Greek section in the Punjab, thus bringing India under the influence of Grecian civilization. Thus we find ancient civilizations brought together, the isolation of the one touched by the universality of the other.

After many encroachments, 2000 years after the invasion of Alexander, India is conquered by a modern power, and brought under the new social and governmental systems of Great Britain which have exerted a powerful influence upon the life and development of that people.

Questions.

1. How does the territory of India compare with that of the United States in extent?
2. In the absence of reliable historic facts of the early history of the Hindus upon what do we depend mainly for our knowledge of the people?
3. What is the earliest historic Indian date thus far known?
4. Why did Alexander not push on to the Ganges?
5. What were some of the things he did in India?
6. What hordes poured into northern India during the first six centuries of the Christian era?

Civilization—Ruling Ideas.

It is with the India of antiquity we are concerned, to note her early development and ruling ideas, and the effect of her civilization upon herself and the world.

1. Literature.

The Vedas, the Bible of India. It is upon these books of the Aryan invaders that we rely for our knowledge of the people. The Rig-Vedas are lyrics (1017) addressed to the gods. By them we are enabled to trace the early social and religious development of the people. The language in which the Vedas were written was the old dialect which later developed into Sanskrit. The *Mahabharata*, which dates back to 500 B. C., was the great epic.

2. Religion and Philosophy.

(1.) The Vedic Religion. There was both an early and later form, the former being of a more cheerless and gloomy character. The forces of nature represent the chief divinities. Following the doctrine of immortality came the doctrine of Transmigration.

Contrary to the view sometimes held that Monotheism (doctrine of one God) evolved from Polytheism (many gods), the reverse is true. The farther back we go in the sacred literature both of India and Egypt the more distinct monotheism becomes, while the later forms express a more decided polytheism.

(2.) Brahminical Pantheism. Pantheism signifies that "All is God"—*pan* all and *theos* God. Into pantheism polytheism passed. In this system Brahma is the supreme being, the source of all things, but is impersonal. Briefly stated, the theory of reincarnation is, that to become absorbed into Brahma is to escape reincarnation, but such absorption or union involves the annihilation of self or distinctive personality. The failure to come into such union with the All is to be reincarnated at death and thus continue some form of a personal existence.

(3.) Buddhism. This religion appeared in India in the fifth century B. C. The founder was Buddha, a member of the family of Guatamas. Prior to the formulation of his system he devoted seven years to the contemplation of human misery. From these meditations we can understand the three principles of his doctrine:

(a) Misery is the necessary attendant of existence; (b) the ground of this misery is the inability to realize desire; (c) therefore, desire, the cause of misery, must be destroyed, which is only possible by the annihilation of being or the self. Stated in modern terms it means that life is not worth living, a business that does not pay expenses. Thus it is that India developed the most thoroughgoing pessimism, and held up existence as an evil. It started from totally wrong premises and drew vicious conclusions. This philosophy has influenced many minds, especially Schopenhauer, the German philosopher. There are modern pessimists who view life from mistaken angles and are living in the civilization of India. But India has outgrown Buddhism, which has been dead in the land of its birth for ten centuries.

3. *Art.*

See the chart. The five statements are sufficiently full for present purposes.

It is well at this point to call the reader's attention to one distinctive fact of ancient life, a fact especially prominent in Roman history. It is the subordination of the individual, the individual for the state, not the state for the individual. As man develops this is reversed. The onward movement of the race gradually brought forward the true conception, *i. e.*, that the individual is the social unit. This growing individualism marks the progress of civilization. It is the one thing struggling for expression. It appears in the later feudalism.

In the Reformation it asserts itself, and so on down through modern times.

From this survey of these nations of antiquity we have seen the race struggling with its problems and constructing out of its ruling ideas great systems. We have noticed that some of these conceptions belong to the whole race and not simply to antiquity, and our future studies will show that the great moral struggle continues, having the same fundamental basis and only assuming a different form. Struggling into new developments man carries the essential constituents of his nature seeking their larger and truer interpretation. The study of history is the study of these struggles in which the doubt that often assails the mind is but faith battling with its difficulties.

One statement suffices to distinguish ancient history, and the student should carefully note it and hold it in mind as we pass through this great period: Ancient history is the record of the *struggle toward universal unity in thought, politics and religion.*

Topics for Study.

For the history of India, Mills' *History of India*, Duncker's *History of Antiquity* and Lenormant's *Manual of the Ancient History of the East* are recommended. On Oriental History such works should be consulted as Rawlinson's *Five Great Monarchies*; Sayce's *Ancient Empires*, and *History of Egypt Under the Pharaohs*, by Brugsch-Bey.

1. Facts and legends of the early history of India. Manning's *Ancient and Medieval India*.

2. *Ancient Ballads and Legends of Hindustan*, by Toru Dutt,
a Hindu woman.
3. *Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies*, by Jean An-
toine Dubois.
4. Ancient Indian Architecture. *Cave Temples of India*, by
Fergusson & Burgess. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II,
314-329.

5. Sanskrit Literature. Max Müller's *History of Sanskrit
Literature*. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 301, 302.
6. The Veda—the Bible of India. *The Beliefs of Mankind*,
pp. 153-170. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 296-304, 309.
7. The Brahminical System. *The Religions of India*, by
Barth. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 308, 310, 311, 323, 328.
8. Buddha and Buddhism. *The Beliefs of Mankind*, pp.
171-185. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 305-315.

Nations of the Euphrates Region

<p>Chaldea</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. First empire of this region. 2. Turanian Accadians first inhabitants. 3. Called Babylonia after Assyrian bondage. 4. Maintained their independence. 5. Settled in the north and founded Assyria. 6. Religion. Grounded in the old Accadian system. Anu, god of the sky, chief deity. <p>Assyria</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tiglath-Pileser I, 1130. Great conqueror. 2. Tiglath-Pileser II. Syria & Babylon taken. 3. Assur-nazi-pal III, 883-858. Palaces, temples. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Shalmaneser II, 858-825. 5. Tiglath-Pileser III, 745-27. His new system. 6. Sargon, 722-05. Captivity of Israel, 722. 7. Sennacherib, 705-681. Siege of Jerusalem. 8. Sarrhaddon, 680-68. Egypt & Syria restored. 9. Sardanapalus, 668-25. The great period of Assyrian art. Reared magnificent palaces. 10. Fall of Assyria by Medes and Persians, 606. <p>Art. Pictorial, describing events. Inferior to Babylonians in art and literature.</p> <p>Religion. The system the same as the Babylonian, but the Assyrians were less religious.</p>
<p>Orientalism Babylon Universal Empires</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Old Empire</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sargon. Agade his capital. 3800. 2. Hammurabi, 2250. Founder of the old empire. His Code of Laws discovered A.D. 1902 sets forth his statesmanship. 3. Centuries of peace after Hammurabi. 4. The Kassites a Chaldean dynasty, 1700. <p style="text-align: center;">New Empire</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Nabopolassar, 625. A Chaldean. 2. Nebuchadnezzar, 605-562. Greatest Babylonian King. 3. Nabonidas and Belshazzar, 562-538. Fall of Babylon under Cyrus, 538. <p>Religion. Builders of temples.</p> <p>Literature. Account of Creation, etc.</p> <p>Science. Division of time into months, days.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Medo-Persia</p> <p>Media Persia</p> <p>Cyaxares, founder of monarchy 633.</p> <p>Astyages, grandfather of Cyrus.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cyrus, 558-29. Extension of the empire. 2. Cambyses, 529-22. Conquered Egypt. 3. Darius, 522-486. Grecian war. India. 4. Xerxes, 486-65. Thermopylae, Salamis. 5. Darius III. The last King. <p>Government. System of satrapy.</p> <p>Liberty in laws, customs, religion.</p> <p>Education. The one nation of this group having a national educational system.</p> <p>Religion. Based on the Zend Avesta.</p> <p>Zoroaster the founder.</p> <p>Art. Their architecture famous for simplicity and regularity.</p>

NATIONS OF THE EUPHRATES REGION

Great interest attaches to the region in which began the struggle for world-wide dominion and in which it was first accomplished. It marks an enlargement in human ideas and activities and is the beginning of a movement by which the race is to pass under certain types, or by which it is to see itself exhibited at its best in three respects. These far-reaching influences, beginning in Orientalism and culminating in Roman Imperialism, were calculated to leave their stamp upon all future civilizations and at the same time to teach the world one of its profoundest truths.

In the Biblical account of the race following the flood the descendants of the sons of Noah find themselves in the plain of Shinar. Here was attempted the first political organization by the Hamitic, Japhetic and Shemitic races. Seth had been divinely selected from the Adamic family in distinction from the Cainites. Noah was of the line of Seth, and of his three sons the seal of divine selection was laid upon Shem, who became the ancestor of the Semitic peoples. This providential procedure will be set forth at length in our study of the Hebrews. The races of Ham and Japheth, following the incident at Babel, scatter to the south and west, thus breaking up the political organization in the valley of the Euphrates, and leaving the Shemites in the east.

Thus these nations of the Tigris and Euphrates form a group, were kindred people and had a common civilization.

The region which is now under the rule of Turkey and Persia was, in these early days of history, the seat of mighty empires. It is described by the word *Orientalism*, hence its significance in the design of Chart 2. As in the previous studies our aim is to aid the student to follow the course of history and to discover the conditions underlying these developments, note the manner in which these civilizations became inter-related and their contributions to future times.

Chaldea.

The richness of soil of this entire region drew to it a dense population. The conditions of existence led these masses to follow the line of least resistance and to settle these districts. Chaldea was situated in the lower part of Babylonia, and consequently the names Chaldean and Babylonian were used interchangeably.

This became the first great empire of this region, and while it holds for us an independent interest, the point of peculiar importance is its relation to the other great states. Maintaining their independence they became established in the north and founded Assyria. Thus one great empire grew out of another. Of similar importance is the fact that Nabopolassar, the founder of the New Babylonian Empire and father of Nebuchadnezzar, was a Chaldean.

Questions.

1. Who were probably the first inhabitants?
2. When did it receive the name Babylonia?
3. For how long a time was it under Assyrian bondage?
4. What language did the Chaldean closely resemble?
5. Their religion grounded in the Accadian System, what were some of the chief features of that system?

Assyria.

We have already seen how this Semitic race came into existence. It brought forth the first great civilization of this region and was destined to exert a mighty influence for centuries and to come into special relations with other states, such as Egypt, Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine and Babylon. The deeds of her kings are preserved on bricks, cylinders, and obelisks showing such achievements as the conquest of forty-two countries by one king, the conquest of Syria, Phœnicia and Palestine, the new political system that was created, the conquests in Central Arabia and other great deeds.

The distinction of Assyria lay in her conquests rather than in culture. Devoted from the beginning to war and pillage their monuments exhibit the cruelty and brutality to which they subjected their enemies. They developed an interest in trade, and the excavations in Nineveh reveal something of their building operations.

It is believed that the Assyrian culture came from Babylon, but the creative power in literature that belonged to the latter

was wanting in the Assyrians. They lacked in the sense of beauty and their art was but a pictorial representation of events. Their religion was essentially the same as the Babylonian, Asshur being the tutelary deity, Astarte, corresponding to Ishtar of the Babylonian, and Bel having equal significance with both nations.

We trace the development of Assyria from the time of their supremacy over Babylonia, 1270 B. C., to the fall of Assyria in 606, when Nineveh was taken and destroyed by the Medes and Babylonians. Cyaxares the Median entered into an alliance with Nabopolassar and a treaty was made with Lydia. Then began the struggle that should decide the fate of Assyria. It ended with the fall of Nineveh and the division of Assyria by the Tigris between the Medes and Babylonians.

It will be seen that the fall of Assyria antedated that of Egypt by nearly three centuries, and about 116 years after she put an end to Israel and carried the ten tribes into captivity. It leaves two other great nations of this group to continue the struggle, to subdue empires, bring forth their civilization and raise Orientalism to its greatest height and leave one dominant fact in the historic development of the race. The following questions will bring forward the important events of this empire:

Questions.

1. What does *Semitic* signify?
2. What king conquered 42 countries and extended the empire to the Mediterranean?

3. How far did Assurnazirpal III extend the empire and what building interests distinguished this reign?
4. How did Tiglath-Pileser III restore Assyrian power? What was his new political system?
5. By what king were the Ten Tribes of Israel taken into captivity? What was the capital of Israel?
6. What king came into conflict with Judah in 701, and what happened to his army? (See Isa. xxxvi-xxxix.)
7. Why did Sennacherib destroy Babylon?
8. What were the conquests of Essarhaddon?
9. Who was the last great King of Assyria and upon what did his fame mainly rest?

Topics for Study.

1. Language of Assyrians, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, pp. 152-155.
2. Canals and aqueducts constructed by Sennacherib.
3. Cities and ruins of Assyria, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 325.
4. History and ruins of Nineveh, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 147, 325; II, 88-94.
5. Assyrian Art, *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 86.
6. Palaces and Temples of Assurnazirpal, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 324-346; II, 68, 69, 90.
7. The Assyrian art of gem-cutting.
8. Study of Byron's *Destruction of Sennacherib's Army*.
9. Study of *Sardanapalus*, the hero of Byron's tragedy.

BABYLON.

When this great state passed from the stage of action the race had come to a new development. It is only as we look back over the ages that have rolled away and follow the order of civilizations that we can see the significance of Babylon in its relation to the world. And this is that deeper meaning of history, *i. e.*, to see the relation of the parts to the whole, to grasp and place the units in the universal, and to see in what manner every contribution must be accounted for in the sum total of human development. The part played by every state is very much like the incidents, circumstances, forces of an individual life that carry it on to maturity. We may have forgotten many of these, but while they have fallen out of memory they have not fallen out of the life. They live in the present, though forgotten by it, and are operative whether or not they were ever properly understood. One may be ignorant of Babylon, Greece and Rome, but that does not alter the fact that these mighty forces are a part of our life, and that ignorance of them does not render their power and influence abortive.

While Assyria was proceeding to the acme of her greatness, Babylon was advancing to hers, carrying the race a step further. It is left for her and Medo-Persia to accomplish all that was possible for Orientalism to do, and to leave the race in its earlier stages to contemplate what was presented as the one great end of life. As we study these states this dominant idea will appear. And the intelligent study of history is the apprehension of the ideas that have influenced civilization.

The Old Empire.

1. Sargon established his capital at Agade about 3800 B. C. Under the patronage of this law-giver and conqueror Babylonian culture was extended to the Mediterranean. Between the period of Sargon and the founding of the first Babylonian Empire the Elamites were a source of great trouble. About 2286 B. C. they captured the southern cities of Babylonia while about the same time the city of Babylon was seized by Arabian kings. Under the Cossæan kings the state declined while Assyria increased in strength.

2. Hammurabi was the founder of the first Babylonian Empire about 2250 B. C. Since the discovery of his code of law much information has come to us regarding his abilities and statesmanship. The finding of this code is one of the most important discoveries in archæological research. It was discovered in 1902 A. D. and "is so important that the whole history of early law will have to be re-written. The inscription is the longest Babylonian record ever discovered." From the first part of the inscription we learn much concerning public works then in existence as also historical facts of that time. The code sets forth in great detail the laws regulating the conduct of the people and the penalties imposed for various defections. The commercial laws are of special interest both as distinguishing an unusual system and as indicating the commercial activity of the Babylonians. One of the most interesting and highly important features of the code is the striking agreement between it and the Law of the Covenant and Deuteronomic code of the Hebrews. And this is the more inter-

esting when we remember that it antedates the Pentateuch by many centuries.

3. Following the reign of this brilliant statesman Babylon enjoyed a long period of prosperity. During the period of the Kassites, a Chaldean dynasty which arose about 1700 B. C., the state greatly developed. It was during this period that the city of Assur revolted, gained its independence by a war and established the kingdom of Assyria. The latter state grew to power while Babylon greatly declined.

4. Early Babylonian culture.

In mathematics and astronomy the Babylonians were much in advance of the Egyptians. They divided time into months, days and minutes. Their invention of weights and measures was carried to other nations. They invented the potter's wheel, engraved gems, and manufactured fabrics.

In literature, among other productions may be noted the "Legend of Sargon," "Ishtar's Descent Into Hades," "Story of the Flood," that resembles so strikingly the Biblical account, and "Penitential Psalms."

The Babylonians exhibited a greater religious interest than the Assyrians. While the latter built palaces the former reared temples.

The New Empire.

1. Founding of the New Empire.

We have already noted, in our study of Assyria, the alliance which Cyaxares formed with Nabopolassar against Assyria. When that empire fell in 625 B. C., the spoils that fell to

Nabopolassar was the whole of Babylonia. Under him the New Empire was founded.

2. His son, Nebuchadnezzar, was the most distinguished Babylonian monarch. He enlarged Babylon, adorned and beautified it until it surpassed all ancient cities. Its walls were forty miles in circumference and contained 100 gates and 250 towers. He built the great palace with its "hanging gardens," connected the Euphrates and the Tigris and constructed remarkable water-works. The "Hanging Gardens," one of the world's great wonders, constructed on high arches, story above story, flourished with flowers, shrubs and trees.

3. The First Universal Empire..

During his reign of forty-three years, one-half of the whole period of the New Empire, Nebuchadnezzar caused the power of Babylon to be felt throughout the nations. Captives in great numbers were brought to the capital, and the king set up his image as a god to be worshipped. The state abounded with wealth and luxury. Grandeur and magnificence assumed the greatest forms.

Under the last two kings, Nabonidas and Belshazzar, the administrative system declined. The very grandeur and luxury of the state ate into its vitals. Herodotus, as also Daniel, tell us that it was in the midst of revelry and debauch that the city fell into the hands of Cyrus, after an existence of less than 90 years.

The Material Type.

Orientalism was the representative of materialism. It exhausted the race in its lowest plane. It was the beginning of

those great representations of man in which by great universal states he should be exhibited to himself in the dominant interests of his being. In Babylon he reaches his greatest material conceptions. Material grandeur, wealth, power, is the dominant idea and the highest good. If this constituted the climax, the glory of life, the ideal of existence and the goal of human aspiration, then Babylon and Medo-Persia have for all time solved the problem of life. They exhibited man at his best in this ancient period in the material plane, and it remains for the future to show whether there is anything higher or better. It is significant, however, that this mighty state that has carried the race forward to this representation of itself could not survive its ideal. In the midst of its unparalleled grandeur it fell into a heap of ruins.

Every nation has had a mission, has contributed something to human development, has uttered some message, some word of truth. But in a peculiar sense the four great universal empires stand out in human history. They are the bearers of a special announcement, set apart as it were for unusual ends. No other states of the ancient world are so distinguished. Through these moulds humanity passed and received an impress. By them the world was successively gathered together and passed on from the one to the other, each great civilization unfolding a new type of our human character and constitution. This fact is especially distinguished in the sacred Scriptures. The Prophecy of Daniel sets forth the world-order in these Universal Empires in the midst of the first of which he lived as a Hebrew captive. His vision of the His-

toric Man is not only striking but historically true in every detail. He described Babylon as the head of gold. He sets forth the relation of these great states to each other and to the world at large, and the significance attached to them as to no other states is what the historian is compelled to recognize, whether he cares anything about the Scriptural presentation or not.

One of the most important things in the mission of Babylon was her relation to the Hebrew race. The prophecies of the Babylonian Captivity announced by Isaiah and Jeremiah were fulfilled to the letter including the matter of its duration. It was idolatry that sent them into captivity, and it was the captivity that effectually cured them of idolatry. So that after passing out of Babylon the Jew was fitted to accomplish his own great mission of disseminating a monotheistic religion and in due time bring forth the greatest force in human thought and civilization—the advent of Jesus Christ.

What is of special interest to us at this point is to keep before the mind the place and power of Babylon in the world's development—the representative of the material order. The race must begin its great ascent in the lower plane and upon this rung of the ladder Babylon placed our feet. And we shall rest there until advanced by the next great movement representative of a higher order.

Questions.

1. What was the state of Egyptian civilization when Sargon ruled Babylon? (See charts.)

2. Under what conditions was Assyria founded?
3. Who were the Elamites?
4. From whom did Nebuchadnezzar wrest Syria?
5. When did he first capture Jerusalem?
6. Whom did he place on the throne of Judah, and what alliance did that king make and with what result?
7. What is the date of the second capture of Jerusalem?
8. When did Tyre fall into the hands of Babylon?
9. When and by whom did Babylon fall, and how does this date correspond with the 70 years' captivity of the Jews?

Topics for Study.

1. The Hammurabi Code. *Records of the Past. History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 196-198.
2. City of Babylon—Walls, Palaces, etc. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 128-132. Budge's *Babylonian Life and History*.
3. Ancient Remains of Babylonia, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 161-182.
4. Destruction of Jerusalem.
5. The Story of Babylon and Nebuchadnezzar as given by Daniel.
6. Ishtar's Descent Into Hades. *Records of the Past; History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 183-188.
7. Babylonian Conception of a Future Life, *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 188.
8. Study of the Flood Story, noting coincidences with that

in Genesis. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 186. *Records of the Past*.

Medo-Persia.

With the second great universal empire Orientalism completes its task, having brought forth two of the four great states. Brought into conflict with the third great state we shall watch with interest the passing from the lower to the higher conception and ideal.

Media.

The country of the Medes lay in the western part of the plateau of Iran, while on the southern border lay the territory of the Persians. Both sprang from the Aryan family and had come from the region of the Oxus. For a time the Medes had a national existence apart from the Persians, but little distinction attached to it.

Questions.

1. Who was the founder of the Median Monarchy, what was his greatest accomplishment and what did he add to his dominions?
2. By what kindred ties through Astyages was Media bound to Persia?
3. What was the relation of Cyrus to Astyages and what was the plot of the latter concerning him? In what way did Cyrus escape?

4. How was Cyrus assisted in securing the Median kingdom, and when did he become King of Medes and Persians?

Persia.

1. Extension of the Empire.

From the beginning of the reign of Cyrus, 558 B. C., to the Conquest of Persia by Alexander, 331 B. C., was a period of 227 years. The Medes and Persians, it will be noted, became one state under Cyrus just twenty years prior to the fall of Babylon by Cyrus.

Under that king the Empire was extended from the Indus to the Ægean, and from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf. "The character of Cyrus shines in the darkness of Oriental history as that of a magnanimous king, a generous enemy, a kindly man."

His son Cambyses reigned but seven years. He lacked the sterling qualities and noble manhood of his father. Incapable of bearing the failure of an expedition into Ethiopia he committed suicide. He had conquered Egypt.

No direct heirs to the throne were left by Cambyses, and Darius succeeded, being of royal blood. It was his ambition to exceed his predecessors in the extension of his already vast empire. His first step was to establish a new system, giving the government a firmer basis. The empire was divided into twenty provinces, each province ruled by a satrap, who were required to pay tribute.

Into his hands fell India, Thrace and Macedonia. In his

conflict with the Athenians his large army met with a crushing defeat, and before Darius could recover the loss by the vast preparations he instituted he died.

2. Conflict with the Greeks.

This will be taken up more particularly in connection with Grecian history. During the reign of Xerxes I the battles of

Thermopylæ, Salamis and Platæa were fought, the first only being won by the Persians. Xerxes has been supposed to be the Ahasuerus of the book of Esther. There are good grounds for this supposition.

Darius III was the last Persian King. The vast empire was overthrown by Alexander the Great in 331 B. C., at the battle of Arbela.

For nearly 500 years the Parthians, who conquered Alexander's successors, maintained a dynasty. This began 248 B. C., and in 226 A. D. the throne was seized by a pretender and a dynasty founded which lasted until 632 A. D.

3. Rise and Fall of the Second Universal Empire.

This vast empire lasted for 200 years after the fall of Babylon or a little more than twice as long as the first universal empire. In the Prophecy of Daniel it is represented in the Historic Man as the arms and breast of silver. In that vision both its rise and fall are predicted and described and history vindicated the prophecy in due time.

The fundamental idea of Babylon was carried out still further by Persia. These states never rose above that materialism of which Orientalism was representative. For this exhibition of the race in this lower plane the world was conquered and

brought to the feet of these mighty states. The movement began with the lower and for its fullest distinction passed through a period of 300 years. And as was said in connection with Babylon, if this dominant idea were the climax, the problem of life, then it found its solution in Orientalism. But if not, if man is capable of something higher, if there are aspirations and possibilities in human life above this material plane they will be struggled for, and for their distinction and realization he will construct new empires by which to compel his larger self-expression. Already that moment has dawned. On the plains of Arbela Persia passed away. She could do no more for us than she had done, and it remains to be seen what new developments are in store for the race at the hands of her conqueror.

Questions.

1. Who was the wealthiest man in the time of Cyrus, and what relations were established between them?
2. What Biblical event is associated with Cyrus?
3. What happened while Cambyses was in Egypt?
4. In what way did Darius secure the throne?
5. Was the spy system, introduced by Darius, calculated to weaken or increase his power?
6. Where did Darius build great palaces, and by what methods did he secure a rapid transmission of intelligence?
7. What was the cause of the conflict with Greece that issued in the Battle of Marathon? Why was Darius and his vast army defeated, and what importance attaches to this battle?

8. How long was the period from the conflict with Greece under Darius to the conquest by Alexander?

9. Did Egypt fall into the hands of Alexander before or after the fall of Persia? (See Chart 1.)

Persian Civilization.

1. Government.

It is important to note the advance made by Darius I in governmental principles. Oriental monarchies sustained a uniform type of government, while, as Rawlinson shows, the ruler was the absolute master of the lives and possessions of his subjects. What was attempted in the way of checking this absoluteness and despotism availed but little. Instead of permitting kings of conquered countries to rule their territories, as had been the case, Darius placed a Persian satrap over the province whose authority was supported by Persian soldiers stationed in each province. The king protected himself against the plots of satraps and also kept them within limitations by a system established in each satrapy. Yet it was by this very system of satrapy that the disintegration of the empire was hastened when the successors of Darius were rendered effeminate by polygamy, and inspections of the provinces gradually ceased.

2. Education.

Special attention was given to the education of Persian youth which began at the age of five and continued to the age

of twenty. Persia alone of this group of states sustained a national educational system. By a most vigorous system the boy was trained to great endurance, to master hardships and support himself under limited conditions. Fundamental in his moral training was absolute regard for the truth. "So effective was this teaching that the Persians would not engage in trade, because in their opinion it would necessitate untruthfulness."

3. Religion.

The Zend Avesta was the basis of their religion. It has been supposed that a certain similarity between the Persian and Jewish systems was responsible for the generous attitude of the Persians to that race. But other conquerors, especially Alexander, displayed a like attitude and encouraged them to locate in certain centers because of the assistance they rendered in colonization.

Zoroaster, a Median King, was the founder of the Persian religion. The god of light stands opposed to the god of darkness, while "the conflict of virtue and vice in man is a contest for control on the part of these antagonistic powers. In order to keep off the evil spirits one must avoid what is morally or ceremonially unclean." The things especially emphasized by the Zoroastrian system were purity, piety, truth and industry.

For many centuries Mohammedan persecution has scattered the adherents of this system. They are called Parsees and number about 100,000, the great majority of them living in India.

4. Art.

The Persians contributed nothing to Science, but became famous in architecture, the finest example of which was the Great Palace at Persepolis, destroyed by Alexander. The remains that still exist are among the most remarkable of ancient constructions in this section of the world. Three things distinguish Persian architecture: first, the attention given to proportion, simplicity and regularity; second, the filling of the halls with magnificent pillars; and third, the approach to their great buildings by great staircases. Artistic talent in any high degree was not among their accomplishments. They were soldiers and fitted to rule, but not an intellectual people. Their distinction is not to be sought in this realm.

The Chart.

As we close our studies relative to this group of nations it will be well to see them as they are related in the chart. To begin with note the manner in which they are exhibited under the term Orientalism. Review the beginnings of these empires and follow the historic stream and the developments in each state. Observe especially the rise of Universal Empires and the great central fact as indicated by the circle.

The second great empire representative of this dominant

fact of Orientalism has fallen under the mighty hand of another state. Materialism has come into conflict with a new force that claims the world. A new aspect of life has evolved that declares itself mightier than the mere material order and that proposes a new solution of our human problem, and the unfolding of a greater being than had yet been discovered. It is now for Greece to establish these high claims.

Topics for Study.

1. Cyrus and restoration of the Jews. *The Book of Ezra*. See also Isaiah xlv.
2. System of Government Under Darius. Rawlinson's *Five Great Monarchies; History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 176, 177.
3. Persepolis, Its Palaces, Inscriptions, Tombs, Ruins, etc. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 177-254.
4. The Jews in the Persian State as set forth in the *Book of Esther*.
5. Persian Art. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 160, 186-206; Wheeler's *Alexander the Great*, pp. 187-207.
6. Zoroaster and the Persian Religion. Fisher's *Outlines of Universal History*, pp. 64-66; *Beliefs of Mankind; History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 247-272.
7. Decisive Battles—Thermopylae, Marathon, Salamis.

Hebrews and Phoenicians

From Abraham 1921 to 70 A.D.

From Abraham to the Exodus, 1491.

Jacob and sons, in Egypt, Moses.

From Exodus to Monarchy, 1491-1095.

Wilderness, Conquest of Palestine by

Joshua, Period of the Judges.

From Saul to Disruption, 1095-975.

Saul, David, Jerusalem the capital,

Solomon the Temple. Phoenician aid.

From Disruption to Nehemiah, 975-445.

Israel 19 Kings 9 dynasties. Captivity

by Assyrians 722.

Judah 19 Kings one dynasty. Babylonian

Captivity 586. Restoration by Cyrus 536.

From Nehemiah to A.D. 70.

Palestine under Persians to 333, Alexander

333-323, Ptolemies 323-204, Syrian Kings

204-165, Maccabees 165-63, Romans to

destruction of Jerusalem 70 A.D.

Civilization

Literature

1. *Old Testament, 39 books.*

2. *Apocrypha, 14 books.*

3. *Talmud. Two parts, Mishna and Gemara.*

Education

1. *Primary. Home instruction.*

2. *Higher education. Schools of the Prophets.*

Taught philosophy, history, poetry, law.

Schools of the Rabbis. In Alexandria,

Babylon, Jerusalem.

Phoenicia 2500-64 B.C.

From Settlement, 2500 to 900 B.C.

Sidon's supremacy until 1050.

Tyre's supremacy for 7 centuries.

The alphabet perfected.

Independent development, 1100-900.

Under Assyria and Babylon, 900-539.

Assur-nazir-pal, Assyrian extension.

Sidon destroyed 678.

Babylonian control 572. Assyria fell 625.

Incorporation into Persian Empire 539.

After the fall of Babylon by Cyrus.

Alexander's Conquest 332. End of Nation, 64

Siege of Tyre ended by Alexander.

Conquered by Ptolemy.

Syria gained control, 197.

A Roman province in 64.

Temple

Commerce and Industry

1. *Leading ancient maritime people.*

2. *Imported tin, precious metals, pearls.*

3. *Made ships for the great nations.*

4. *Contributed to Solomon's Temple.*

Colonization

Supply stations developed into colonies and

trade centers-Utica, Hippo, Carthage, etc.

Enterprises

1. *Jew-cutting, dyeing, pottery work.*

2. *Constructed a phonetic alphabet which be-*

came the basis of modern alphabets.

HEBREWS AND PHŒNICIANS

Palestine is one of the smallest countries in the world. Including the section east of the Jordan, it comprises about ten thousand square miles, and in size is about the same as Maryland or Massachusetts. It was hidden away, as it were, from the rest of the world waiting for the nation that should occupy it to bring forth in this isolated spot a civilization that should influence and mould the thought of humanity as no other has done. A glance at this small strip of land brings before us two vital facts—its isolation and centralization. And these two facts are to have a profound significance relative to the nation that is to inherit this land. From the physical features of its isolation we would say that this country was designed for a people who should be protected from neighbors, a provision designed for peculiar ends as to their national mission. Protected by the sea on the west, the deserts on the south and east and mountains on the north, the inhabitants would be cut off from neighbors and live in such isolation as would afford them a special opportunity of maintaining and developing, without the hindrances of intercourse with other peoples, the thing that is to be committed to their hands. There is perhaps no other spot in all the world more effectually isolated, and this geographical situation must never be lost sight of in the consideration of the Hebrew nation. Among polytheistic nations this race is selected to bring forth and develop a monotheistic religion, claiming to be divinely communicated and bearing a

message of redemption to the whole world. To keep this people free from intermixture with the idolatrous races about them they are placed in this geographical isolation, in a fruitful land abundantly capable of supplying their needs, to accomplish the end for which they were chosen.

It is a remarkable fact that no other race has been so completely identified with a distinguishing end or purpose as has the Hebrew nation. In every feature and phase of the life of this race is the one fact of their being divinely chosen as the bearers of a special message to humanity, and all things are brought under contribution to this end. The same cannot be said of the Egyptians, Babylonians, Greeks or Romans regarding their distinctive interest and civilization. Thus in the study of this people there is something altogether unusual and different, and this is emphasized by the unusual manner in which he has left the impress of his personality and civilization upon the world.

Two facts impressed us regarding Palestine. We have noted that of its isolation; the other is its centralization. While protected from neighbors this nation is not to be excluded from the great world, the great civilizations and influences about it. No other nation could be more centrally situated with reference to the dominant forces of ancient life. It is only necessary to glance over the map of ancient times to see the relation of this little spot to Babylonia, Persia, Assyria, Egypt,

Greece, and Rome. Into vital contact with these races Palestine is to be brought. From Babylon the head of the nation is to proceed. In Egypt the nation is to come to its growth sufficiently strong to conquer their land and establish themselves in their inheritance. Assyria is to scatter the ten tribes among the nations. Babylon is to be the instrument in rescuing Judah from idolatry, never again to forsake her monotheism. Persia is to restore captive Judah and thus pave the way for the times of the Messiah. Greece is to furnish the new tongue for the Old Testament Scriptures, the Septuagint, by which they should be carried to the whole Greek-speaking world. Rome, in her world-wide conquests, shall cast up the highways for the Jew scattered throughout the empire and sowing the seed of his religion. Thus every great force of the ancient world is brought into requisition for the development and consummation of the Jewish mission and message to humanity. Isolated in Palestine and Jewishly individualistic, and exclusive, yet how central to the great world about it, and what universal elements enter into this religious civilization. The very thing designed in its peculiar exclusiveness was not that it should remain so, but that it should become universal. From an exclusive Judaism Christianity was to appear as naturally as the flower breaks forth from the bud.

The two things to note in the consideration of any state are, what did it specifically accomplish, what things are clearly defined in its development and in what manner and degree has it left an abiding influence upon the world and contributed to the sum-total of human advancement. The intermingling of

states results in a new combination by the mixture of their ruling ideas in much the same way as water is the new result from the proportionate combination of two kinds of air. It is for us in the study of history to note these combinations and see how their fusion produces the new historic results. What was brought forth in Palestine is fusing with the thought of the world, and at this moment is profoundly operative in the deepest interests of our race. Its one great announcement is the surrender of the race to its claims, and to this end its institutions, social, religious and educational, are established. Thus the importance of an intelligent understanding of the people and sources of what at this hour have such a claim upon our attention.

HEBREW HISTORY AND CIVILIZATION.

The history of this people falls into five periods.

I. From Abraham to the Exodus.

Abraham was a native of Ur of the Chaldees, an important city about 150 miles below Babylon. In Genesis we have the account of his being divinely called from Chaldea to Palestine to become the head of the Hebrew nation, and was given the land for his inheritance and that of his seed. Usher places this call at about 1921 B. C. By comparing this date with those of the two preceding charts the student will see what were the contemporaneous events in the other great nations, especially Babylon and Egypt.

For the history of this race the main source is the Old Testament. There a special line is distinguished leading from Seth

to the Messiah and known as the Messianic Line. Seth, the head of this line, was the third son of Adam. Noah is of this line, and after the flood became in his family the new head of the race. Of his three sons Shem is chosen as the new head of the line, the progenitor of the Shemitic races to which belonged the Chaldeans. From this race Abraham is selected, and the line comes to the particular distinction in the Messianic nation, and from this becomes more and more particularized.

Isaac, the son of Abraham, inherits the covenant promises, and of his two sons, Esau and Jacob, the birthright falls to the latter. He became the father of twelve sons, the heads of the future twelve tribes of Israel. In his last words to his sons in Egypt Jacob specifies Judah as the Messianic tribe, which is the last of these distinctions in the book of Genesis. In our study of Egypt we noted the circumstances of Jacob and his family being driven to Egypt by famine after Joseph was made prime minister by Pharaoh, and also the significance of this event. It was a wise provision that took the patriarchal family from Palestine, separated from the idolatrous peoples of the land, and giving them the opportunity under the most favorable conditions to grow up into a strong nation. They would then be able to enter the land of their inheritance, conquer it and become established in their national life.

We have also noticed in our study of the Hyksos kings how, upon their expulsion, the Hebrews were subjected to bitter persecution, which would be calculated to render less difficult the task of inducing them to leave their happy lot in Egypt and return to the land of their forefathers.

Moses is commissioned to rescue his burdened people, and the Exodus marks a new epoch in their history. The date of this event is variously given; in fact, the dates range from 1491 to 1270 B. C.

II. From the Exodus to the Monarchy.

This consists of three periods:

1. The period of wandering under the leadership of Moses.

During this period of forty years all that came from Egypt perished by the way, and but two entered Palestine—Joshua and Caleb. During their stay at Sinai Moses received the Ten Commandments and other laws relative to the judicial and religious government of the people. The tabernacle was set up, the external symbol of Jehovah's presence, and became the religious center of the nation until the building of the temple by Solomon.

2. The period of conquest by Joshua.

The successor of Moses subdued the races occupying the land in a series of remarkable campaigns covering a period of about thirty years. The *Tel Amarna Tablets* found in Upper Egypt in 1887 are of the first importance for the right understanding of the history and geography of Palestine. Of special interest is the letter from Jerusalem to the king of Egypt by Adonizedek, the name of the king of Jerusalem slain by Joshua (Josh. x. 3), and is a remarkable confirmation of the Biblical records. Following the conquest the tribes received

their inheritance, the tabernacle was set up in Shiloh and their national life begins under those special appointments and institutions already communicated to them.

3. The period of the Judges—about 300 years.

During the period of conquest idolatry was not wholly destroyed. Lapsing into idolatry, according to the Book of Judges, was the occasion of severe oppressions by the surrounding nations, especially the Mesopotamians, Moabites, Canaanites, Midianites, Ammonites and Philistines. To relieve the people from these oppressions, judges were raised up, the last of which was Samuel, one of the grandest characters in Jewish history.

Up to this time Israel had been a *theocracy*, under the sovereignty of Jehovah, but now, during the last years of Samuel, they demand a king. The demand was granted and the monarchy established.

III. The Monarchy. From Saul to the Disruption.

1. Saul, Israel's first king, reigned for forty years.

He was of the tribe of Benjamin, as was Saul of Tarsus, who became the Apostle Paul of New Testament history. He was more of a military chieftain than a king, and conducted seven campaigns against the foes of Israel, but was defeated and slain at last by the Philistines on Mount Gilboa.

2. The reign of David.

In his Shiloh prophecy (Gen. xlix. 10) Jacob specified Judah as the royal tribe. In David we come to a new distinction in the Messianic line. The tribal had already been indicated, and now the particular family, the royal family of David, is chosen. He ruled for forty years, having been anointed by Samuel during the kingship of Saul. At first he reigned over Judah alone, but upon the union of the two houses David removed his capital to Jerusalem, which he took from the Jebusites. This brought Israel to national centralization, a most important step in their development. Under David the nation came to rest, her enemies being crushed and the kingdom firmly established.

3. The reign of Solomon, another reign of forty years.

This reign is known as the palmy days of Israel. Solomon's first great achievement was the building of the temple on Mount Moriah. Thus the nation came to its religious centralization. The priesthood and institutions of the temple service were fully organized. Phoenicia contributed largely to this magnificent structure both in materials and workmanship. "The magnificence of the temple was very great, and the gold and other precious substances expended in embellishing it almost transcend belief. According to the most moderate computation, the value of the precious metals was £120,000,000 sterling." This was a period of peace, expansion and remarkable prosperity.

The abounding wealth of the kingdom is well described by the statement that silver was as stones in Jerusalem.

IV. From the Disruption to Nehemiah.

Solomon's reign had brought oppression to the people, and Rehoboam refusing to meet the demands of ten of the tribes that these oppressions be relieved, and declaring that the contrary would be true, the ten tribes revolted, and thus the kingdom was divided into Israel and Judah.

1. The Kingdom of Israel, 975-722.

The northern kingdom under Jeroboam established its capital first at Shechem and afterwards under Omri at Samaria. From the first it fell into the most depraved idolatry, which continued practically unchecked to the very close. Prophets were raised up to warn the kingdom of the doom that would fall upon it in consequence of its rejection of Jehovah, but all to no avail. Nineteen kings representing nine dynasties succeeded one another, and in the reign of Hoshea, after an independent existence of 253 years, they were carried away into captivity by the Assyrians and scattered among the nations.

2. The Kingdom of Judah, 975-586.

Nineteen kings succeeded to the throne, representing one continuous dynasty—the royal house of David. While this kingdom lapsed greatly into idolatry, during three reigns three revivals restored its religious vigor and thus saved it for a time

from the impending doom. The greatest men in the history of these kingdoms were the prophets. Their influence in Judah was more effective, but idolatry and its attending vices sapped its life. The prophecies of the Babylonian captivity by such prophets as Isaiah and Jeremiah were unheeded. During the reign of Jehoiakim, Nebuchadnezzar captured Jerusalem and carried off ten thousand of the people, among whom was Daniel the prophet. In the reign of Zedekiah, 586 B. C., he returned, destroyed the city and carried the people to Babylon. From the time of the first captivity to the restoration under Cyrus for seventy years Judah languished in exile, but the crucible burned away the dross of her idolatry, never to reappear.

When Cyrus took Babylon he restored the Jews to Palestine. From Nebuchadnezzar's first invasion to the edict of Cyrus was seventy years, the length of the captivity declared by the prophets. To Zerubbabel, who belonged to the royal family of Judah, was committed the first expedition, and upon reaching Jerusalem work upon the second temple was begun. Eighty years afterwards Ezra conducted from Babylon another company of seven thousand people. Finally Nehemiah returned, co-operated with Ezra and set the people to work to build the wall.

V. From Nehemiah to the Destruction of Jerusalem.

1. Palestine under Persians to 333 B. C.

The story of the Book of Esther falls in this period and gives many important suggestions regarding the Jews in the

Persian empire. It is generally believed that the Ahasuerus of Esther was Xerxes, the Persian king.

2. Palestine under Alexander, 333-323.

The Book of Nehemiah closes the history of the Old Testament, hence the events which follow the last of his record are those that fall in the period between the Old Testament and the New. In the battle of Arbela the sceptre of power passed from Persia to Alexander. He treated the Jews generously and encouraged them to settle in Alexandria and other parts of the empire. The wide dispersion of this people thus brought them into large contact with the nations, which both exercised an influence upon them and placed them in a position to exercise a peculiar influence upon the world. Being away from Jerusalem the sacrificial part of their worship gave way to the special study of the sacred books, and by them the expectation of the Messiah became widely diffused.

3. Palestine under the Ptolemies, 323-204.

At the death of Alexander his empire was divided between his four generals, Palestine falling to Ptolemy. It was under the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus that the Old Testament was translated into the Greek.

4. Palestine under the Syrian kings, 204-165.

A dark period opened for the Jews when Antiochus Epiphanes came to the throne. By every means he attempted to

uproot and destroy the Jewish system, but instead of succeeding he started a revolt that was to wrest Palestine from Syria.

5. Palestine under the Maccabees, 165-63.

The insurrection which originated in this family culminated in Judas Maccabaeus becoming governor of Palestine.

6. Palestine under the Romans.

The Roman Eagles entered Jerusalem 63 B. C. Hyrcanus was raised to kingly dignity by Julius Cæsar, while, under Antony, Herod was given the same distinction. To gain the goodwill of the Jews he built for them a temple, displacing the second temple, of surpassing magnificence. Fearful that the advent of Christ might mean the loss of his throne, Herod instituted measures by which the child's death might be secured. The Jews frequently came into conflict with the Roman State, and in 70 A. D., Titus destroyed Jerusalem and its temple, while the people driven from Palestine have been scattered over every part of the world.

VI. Literature.

I. The Jewish Bible—the Old Testament.

This comprises 39 books, consisting of the Pentateuch or the Law, five books, twelve historical books, five poetical books and seventeen prophetic books. The compilation of this sacred literature proceeded through a period of nearly fifteen centu-

ries, and constitutes the basis of New Testament thought and doctrine.

2. The fourteen books of the Apocrypha.

These writings form the historical link between the Old and New Testaments, and by some are regarded as being equally canonical with the other books.

3. The Talmud consists of the Mishna, or the Mosaic oral law, and the Gemara, the interpretation or explanation of the Mishna.

VII. Hebrew Education.

Primary education began and ended in the home. Says Professor Seeley, "We have here the highest and best type of family training to be found in history, a characteristic that still holds in Jewish families wherever they exist, and that has contributed largely to the maintenance of the strong racial peculiarities of the Jews." The religious was the great central fact in the early education of the child. Jewish schools did not exist until after the fall of the nation.

The means of higher education lay in the Schools of the Prophets and the Schools of the Rabbis. In the former were taught such subjects as philosophy, law, poetry, medicine and history. The latter appeared in the first Christian centuries in Alexandria, Babylon and Jerusalem and gave instruction in

theology and law. These were founded by famous teachers, and greatly stimulated higher learning.

Questions and Topics for Study.

Essential to a true understanding of Jewish history and institutions is a knowledge of the Old Testament. West's *Ancient History*, sections 60-67, will be found helpful. Thompson's *The Land and the Book*. Kaye's *Chart Bible*, containing 48 charts and full analysis of the Bible.

1. The history of the Covenant—the six stages. Kaye's *Chart Bible*, pp. 26-29.

2. Who were Jacob's twelve sons?

3. At what stage was Egyptian civilization when the Israelites settled in Goshen?

4. The Tabernacle—its construction and significance. Hastings' *Bible Dictionary*. Kaye's *Key to the Treasury* (Vol. IX *Young Folks' Bible Library*).

5. Give the names of six of the great judges of Israel.

6. What was David's capital before the taking of Jerusalem?

7. Sieges and conquests of Jerusalem. *History of All Nations*, Vol. II, 27, 58, 125, 225, 226, 245, 287; Vol. VII, 235, 369; IX, 118, 269, 282.

8. The Temple. Hastings' *Bible Dictionary*.

9. What king carried Israel into captivity?

10. For how long a time did the kingdom of Judah exist after the fall of Israel?

11. What position did Daniel hold in Babylon and the Persian Empire?

12. What happened to Jeremiah and the remnant left in Jerusalem after the fall of the city?

13. During the reign of what Roman emperor was Christ born? In whose reign was he crucified?

14. Why was Jerusalem destroyed by Titus?

Phœnician History and Civilization.

The Phœnicians, like the Hebrews, were of Semitic origin. Their country lay to the north of Judea, between the Mediterranean Sea and the Lebanon Mountains, a strip of land not more than fifteen miles wide, but about one hundred and fifty miles long.

Phœnicia was settled about 2500 B. C., or several centuries before Abraham left Chaldea and some centuries before the establishment of the old Babylonian Empire by Hammurabi. Their geographical position necessitated communication with other nations by the sea, and they became among the ancients the leading maritime people. They had no national existence in the proper sense of the word, but acknowledged the supremacy of the two cities, first Sidon until its overthrow by the Philistines, 1050 B. C., then Tyre until her destruction by Alexander the Great, 332 B. C.

In 1800 B. C., the Egyptians gained supremacy, and in 1400 Phœnicia came under the control of Hittites and Assyrians. From 1100 to 900 B. C., was a period of independent develop-

ment, after which for nearly four hundred years she was under the control of Assyria and Babylonia. During this period Sidon was destroyed by the Assyrians (678) and in 572 Tyre, the leading city, was invested by the Babylonians. In 539 B. C., Phœnicia was added to the Persian Empire. One hundred and thirty-five years after Tyre fell by Alexander, Syria gained control of Phœnicia, and in 64 B. C., she became a Roman province and disappeared as a nation.

Commerce and Colonization.

The ingenuity of the Phœnicians stimulated by the spirit of trade was manifested in their glass industry, their purple dyes for which they became famous, the manufacture of cloth, metal industries, architecture, art of writing and other arts. Situated as they were, they became a maritime people of first importance. They carried their merchandise and the products of the East to many ports. "Through the hands of Phœnician merchants passed the gold and pearls of the East, the purple of Tyre, slaves, ivory, lions' and panthers' skins from the interior of Africa, frankincense from Arabia, the linen of Egypt, the pottery and fine wares of Greece, the copper of Cyprus, the silver of Spain, tin from England and iron from Elba. These products were carried wherever a market could be found for them. At the instigation of Necho, King of Egypt (611-605 B. C.), they are said to have made a three years' voyage around the southern cape of Africa." As early as 1500 B. C., they entered into commercial relations with Assyria, Babylon and Arabia.

The first great colonizing nation of the ancient world, the Phœnicians were the precursors of the Greeks, the Dutch and the English in the establishment of various settlements. In this they were unlike other nations who carried great multitudes of their captives to their own lands. In Cyprus and Crete, Spain, North Africa and the islands of the Ægean Sea they established depots which grew into colonies. About 1100 B. C., they founded Cadiz, the oldest town in Europe. Another of their Spanish settlements was Tarshish. In 1101 B. C., Utica in Northern Africa was settled, and west of this Hippo, which became the home of Saint Augustine many centuries afterwards. Carthage the great rival of Rome was another of their depots founded about 850 B. C.

One of the most important things in the history of this people was the establishment of these settlements, which developed into colonies as viewed from their future history and their relations with other states. They arose not from ambitions of conquest, but from a commercial spirit facilitating the maritime trade of the Phœnicians. They were the mistress of the sea, but lacked the martial spirit. They were a peace-loving people, would rather pay tribute than fight for their liberty, lacked the political instinct and were pre-eminently commercial. This was their importance in this ancient period, and as the great traders of antiquity did their part in the inter-communication of the nations.

The Phœnicians and the Hebrews.

Under King Hiram the power of Tyre reached its zenith. According to two Greek historians his reign extended from

980 to 946 B. C. He was contemporaneous with Solomon, and co-operated with him in the greatest event of his reign—the building of the Temple in Jerusalem. For this great structure the Phœnicians contributed both material and workmanship.

While they contributed to the Jewish temple, the central fact of the Hebrew religion and life, they also contributed to the downfall of Israel in the idolatry that was introduced and fostered by Jezebel, the wife of Ahab. We have already noted the persistence of idolatry in the northern kingdom and how it carried them to destruction and captivity by the Assyrians.

Phœnician Religion.

The chief deities of their religion were *Baal* and *Aschera*, Astarte finally being fused with the latter. It was a sensuous religion, virtue being sacrificed to *Aschera* and *Astarte*. *Moloch* was the god of fire, and to appease him boys and girls were committed to the flames. In *Melkarth* Baal and Moloch became fused. To this deity great temples were dedicated. The god *Adonis* signified the dying autumn returning to life in the spring.

Phœnician Letters.

They constructed a phonetic alphabet on the basis of the Egyptian hieroglyphics. This was a great improvement on the original, since every character represented a sound. They were not a literary people and their great contribution lay in their alphabet. This they carried with them in all their com-

mercial activities, and it became the foundation of modern alphabets, "the mother of most of the graphic systems now existing." Thus we see in what manner the commercial tendencies of this people became the means of circulating the basis of languages and thus uniting the nations.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The student will find Hoffman's *The Beginnings of Writing* and Rawlinson's *Phœnicia* (Story of the Nations) helpful.

1. For what art were the Tyrians especially famous?
2. For what nations did the Phœnicians build ships?
3. The Biblical account of Phœnician trade and life. Ezekiel xxvi-xxvii.
4. At what stage of their national life were the Hebrews when Tyre came to her supremacy?
5. During what period did Hiram render Solomon aid on the Temple?
6. Introduction of Asiatic plants and animals into Europe. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 220.
7. Political institutions. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 216.
8. Which of the Phœnician settlements was the most important historically?
9. Colonies and trading stations. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 217ff.

10. Influence of Phœnicia on Greek civilization. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 219.

11. Religion and gods of Phœnicia. *History of All Nations*, Vol. I, 204ff.

12. Was the fall of Tyre before or after the fall of Persia?

The Chart.

Having followed the history of these two states the leading facts may be brought together quickly by the chart. The periods of Hebrew history should be grasped and the relations of the nation to such states as Egypt, Assyria, Babylon, Greece and Rome. In this manner the historic connections are sustained, and we see how the Jews were brought into vital touch with the nations of antiquity and in what manner they might be affected by the thought and life of this people. Note the central fact of the chart—the Temple—and that it is in this that the Hebrews and Phœnicians came into their most distinctive relation, while the temple centralized Jewish life and institutions.

It will also be noted the vast difference between these two peoples—the one shut in to themselves and afraid of the sea, the other the great maritime people of antiquity. The attention given to Phœnicia in the Hebrew writings should interest the student: Josh. xix 29, Judges xviii 7, Isa. xxiii, Ezek. xxvi-xxvii, xxviii 13 and other references.

Greece-Third Universal Empire

Historical	Heroic Age 2000-1100 1. Greek Heroes, Hercules, Theseus, etc. 2. The Argonauts. 3. Trojan War. Troy unearthed since 1870. The Iliad. 4. Dorian Migration. 5. Simple social life. Duties and rights based on ancient customs.	Formative Age 1100-500 1. Three Classes. Spartans, Citizens. Perioeci. Villagers. Helots. Serfs. 2. Peloponnesus ruled by Spartans in 500. Republican oligarchy 3. Athens. Supremacy in Middle Greece in 500. Draco, Solon, Pisistratus.	Golden Age 500-429 1. Persian Wars 500-479. Marathon, Salamis, Thermopylae, Mycale. A continent saved. 2. Periclean Age 479-429. Athens rebuilt. Democracy under Pericles. Brilliant period in art, architecture, literature, philosophy.	Conquest and Decline 430-146 1. Peloponnesian War, Fall of Athens 431-04 2. Spartan and Theban supremacy, 404-362. Constitution. Philip. 3. Alexander, 336-323. Conquests-Asia, Egypt, Persia, India. 4. Division of Empire. 5. Fall of Greece. A Roman province, 146.
	The Aim of Greece-To Create the Perfect Man by Mental Processes			
Civilization	Religion 1. Grecian Deities. Zeus, supreme god. 2. Oracles. Methods employed by gods. Priestly messages. Oracular signs. Dreams. Communication with spirits. Delphic Oracle. The most famous. On Mt. Parnassus. Made their gods in the form of men.	Art 1. Orders of Architecture. Doric, Ionic, Corinthian. 2. Sculpture. Phidias, Myron, Praxiteles, Chares. 3. Painting. Originated by Gimon, 600 B.C. Polygnotus, founder of historic painting, 480 B.C. Apelles. Greatest Grecian painter.	Literature 1. Epic and Didactic Poetry. Homer and Hesiod. 2. The Drama. Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes. 3. Lyric Poetry. Sappho, Alcaeus, Simonides, Pindar. 4. Historians. Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon. 5. Orations of Demosthenes and Aeschines	Philosophy 1. Pre-Socratic. Ancient Ionians. Pythagoreans. Eleatics. Physicists. Sophists. 2. Socrates, Plato, Aristotle. Reconstruction. Doctrine of Ideas. 3. Post-Aristotelian. Stoicism. Seno. Epicureanism. Scepticism. Pyrrho

Chart 4

GREECE—THIRD UNIVERSAL EMPIRE

When we traced Orientalism to its close at the fall of Persia we raised the question whether the next great state would carry the race to a higher plane and more adequately solve our human problem.

The study of history keeps before us two things: the conflicts between states struggling for existence and the dominant position, and that larger result in which the world as a whole is affected. So we see Greece in its mighty conflict with the Persian power, overthrowing it and becoming the third universal empire. But how much is involved in this event—how much more than the superiority of Grecian arms? It means that with the new state a new order and new ideals are to dominate the world while Greece is in the ascendancy. These ideals may be low or high, but whatever they are they will be given a mighty impulse propelled by the force of the empire that rules the world. Thus the universality of a state is not simply a general conquest of nations, but a spreading of its ideas and ruling principles. It is by becoming universal in the matter of conquest that the larger universality is made possible. The whole race practically lying in the hands of such a conqueror receives a new impress and passes through new moulds. It is stamped with the mark of a new era which registers in the history of humanity its passage from one stage to another in its development.

Again, it is of special importance that we note whether these changes mark a special advance, whether history points out an upward tendency, an evolution in human ideas and enlargement. We expect a child to grow not simply in years and physical development; we expect a rational procedure in his growing life in which his aim and purposes, his aspirations and achievements are controlled by increasing wisdom and understanding, a finer appreciation of himself and the world of which he is a part. It is this that brings him to manhood and not the mere matter of reaching a given age. The question is, does the race in its growth to maturity represent the same sort of historic procedure? Great moments have existed that were calculated to lift humanity from one stage of its life to the next—such moments as these great periods of universal empires. It required such racial experiences to accomplish the passage from the one point to the other. But has it been an ascent, an evolution from the lower to the higher, an actual development of the ideals and principles latent in the race? For example, if the civilization of Greece had antedated that of Orientalism, and having passed from the stage of action the race slumped into purely material notions, ignoring the creations of an intellectual age, there would be difficulty in accounting for human movements on a rational basis. It may be said that Rome did not produce such an intellectual civili-

zation as did Greece and yet followed her as a world power. That is true, and it will be seen when we come to the study of that State that her great mission lay in a different development, and that the order of things was not confused or interrupted, because intellectually she did not exceed the Greeks.

Hence as we pursue our studies in this new moment let us keep in mind the following things: first, the question raised at the close of our Persian studies relative to the world's hope for an upward impulse and a larger solution of our social problem in the next great movement; second, the dominant idea in Grecian civilization; third, the manner in which this indicates a positive advance upon the preceding order. To note these things intelligently is necessary to anything like a proper understanding of the place and mission of Greece. At the close of our study we shall be prepared for the remarks to be made on the Mental Order, the central fact of the chart.

Historical Periods.

The area of Greece is the same as that of the State of West Virginia, and yet in this limited territory a civilization was developed the influence of which should reach all down the ages and effective at this present moment.

We have had occasion to notice how geographical and physical conditions have had important bearings upon historic development. The rich soil of the Euphrates region drew to it a dense population. The Nile was the life of Egypt and her peculiarities afforded her great protection during the early

centuries of her existence. Palestine was shut in from the world. So the physical features of Greece designed it for the development of small states preventing them from becoming a single nation under a central government.

In the study of this superior people we shall be impressed with the great advance made in civilization in that Greece changes the whole order of things making the central idea the citizen instead of the king, about whom the state was organized previously, a great approach to the modern conception that the individual is the unit of society. Thus the central ideas of this civilization were political and intellectual freedom. Indeed it was this emphasis laid upon individual freedom which militated against the union of the entire body that is indispensable to the strength of a nation against other powers.

These observations are made at this time rather than as conclusions of our study that in the light of them the student might better follow the history of this people. Special attention is called to the Grecian character, one distinguishing trait of which was *originality*. Whatever came to their hand formed by others they reconstructed and stamped it with a purely Grecian conception. "When we leave Asiatic ground, and come into contact with the Greeks, we find ourselves in another atmosphere. A spirit of humanity, in the broad sense of the term, pervades their life. A regard for reason, a sense of order, a disposition to keep everything within measure is a marked characteristic. Their sense of form—including a perception of beauty, and of harmony and proportion—made them in politics and letters the leaders of mankind. Their language,

without a rival in flexibility and symmetry and in perfection of sound, is itself, though a spontaneous creation, a work of art." Such a people living in a genial and invigorating climate, fanned by the breezes of mountain and sea, so well trained physically and intellectually, come upon the stage of action to create a new world in human appreciations and development.

I. *The Heroic Period.*

Grecian history falls into four periods which set forth a steady advance to the point of decline and fall of the empire. The chronology of the Heroic Period is very uncertain. The chart indicates a period of 900 years, or from the time of Hellen and his sons to the Dorian migration. While in this period the Achæans are predominant it is with the Dorians and Ionians that authentic history mainly is concerned. The former were distinguished as soldiers, and their training was to this end and away from mental pursuits and interests. They were a hardy people, stern and unimaginative. Sparta was their chief city. On the other hand, the Ionians, the great rivals of the Dorians, had a larger vision of life. They recognized the claims of the mind as well as the body, and the training and development of all the faculties of the soul. From them came historians, artists and philosophers. Their life was centered in Athens.

Prior to the beginning of authentic history the Greeks fill the time with mythical accounts describing the action of gods

and heroes. It is important that we catch the spirit of this period for it distinguishes an order of mind and imagination that antedates the period of critical reflection. And it is especially desirable in connection with this people to observe their mental growth and evolution. This is the distinctive Grecian fact and hence is invested with a chief interest. In this early period their imagination pictures gods and heroes in superhuman activities. But these were the expressions of their own ideals of character and conduct. They reflect the estimate of life's values as cherished by this early people. In other words, imagination is strongly operative, and while there may be a nucleus of historical fact bound up with their tales, the separation of which from the fictitious being an almost useless attempt, the thing of real value is the distinction of the ideal element. These same tendencies would not exist under more critical conditions. When that time comes we have a different Greece. But during this early period it is for us to see in these mythical representations the embodiment of Grecian ideals of character, and in so doing we discover the really important thing regarding this people.

While the Doric Spartans settled in Laconia, the Ionians settled in Attica and the Achæans moved on to the southern shore of the Corinthian Gulf.

In the Homeric age laws, as we use the term, were not formulated. Ancient usage determined moral questions. "The legend of the Trojan War presents to us the first instance of a united national enterprise."

The social life of this age was patriarchal. Polygamy was unknown, and women held in high regard.

Early religious ideas and customs are well set forth in the poems of Homer. Among other things they distinguish especially (1) The nature of the gods—human beings endowed with great powers. (2) The relation of the gods to men—their various methods of communication. (3) Forms of religious service such as sacrifice and supplication. (4) Propitiation of deities and the future life in Hades.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. What parts were included in Northern Greece? Of what states did Central Greece consist? Southern Greece?
2. How did the Greeks explain their origin?
3. Who was the most famous of the Greek heroes? What was the distinction of Theseus and Perseus?
4. Give an outline of the legend of the Argonauts and the Golden Fleece.
5. What was the cause of the Trojan War and how did it issue? What is the connection between Troy and the title of Homer's great work?
6. Where were the Æolian colonies situated? The Ionian? The Dorian?

The best sources of Greek life during this period are Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. For the prose versions of the *Iliad* we commend Lang, Leaf and Myers, and for the *Odyssey* Butcher and Lang. We suggest the study of the following topics:

1. In the *Iliad*.

- (1) The gods, i, 400-430, 526-611; ii, 403-434.
- (2) The king, i, 75-306.
- (3) Treatment of captives, vi, 50-75.
- (4) Funeral ceremony, xxiii, 254-897.

2. In the *Odyssey*.

- (1) Regard for Women, i, 344-360; ii, 117-145.
- (2) Commerce, i, 180-192; iii, 69-75.
- (3) Hades, xi.

3. The Trojan War, Vergil's *Aeneid*, bks ii, iii.

2. *The Formative Period.*

With the two peoples of ancient Greece, the Dorians and Ionians, are associated the two cities, Sparta and Athens, the history of which is practically the history of Greece. This period of the formation of these states covers about six hundred years.

(1) The Spartan State.

This is the oldest Greek state. The form of the Spartan Constitution was the work of Lycurgus, who was revered by the Spartans as the founder of their greatness. How much of the full content of this constitution came from the hand of Lycurgus we do not know. Having formulated a code of laws it is said that Lycurgus received from the Spartans an oath

that they would observe all the requirements of the code until he should return to them from a journey he was about to take. He spent the remainder of his life in exile and never returned. The provisions of this code sought to develop a strong physical race. Deformed children were left to perish, healthy children were trained by the State by vigorous exercises and drills for military purposes.

The Spartan State was aristocratic. It was the first State constitutionally governed, and what is of peculiar importance to us in tracing human developments is, that the organization of this State marks the beginning of the great movement towards human liberty. We said that the government was aristocratic. It has also been called a republican oligarchy. "It was republican in that the sovereign power resided in the whole body of Spartans, and was exercised by representatives elected by them. It was an oligarchy because a few—the Spartans—constituted a ruling class. The Pericæi and Helots had absolutely no voice in the government."

Messenia was conquered 600 B. C., and the southern part of Argolis, and before the close of the sixth century B. C., with the exception of the northern portion of Argolis, Sparta had under her dominion all the states of the Peloponnesus.

(2) The Athenian State.

We have already noted the manner in which the Ionians were distinguished from the Dorians, the point of difference consisting mainly in the æsthetic and intellectual interests of the former.

Athens was formerly ruled by kings. According to tradition Codrus was the last Athenian king, for upon his death it was believed that no one was worthy to succeed him, and the office of archon was created. From 1050 to 752 B. C., thirteen life-archons are said to have held this office. Following this period a change took place in which the term of office was limited to ten years.

The oppression of the nobles led to a demand for a code of written laws. It was prepared by Draco, "a code so vigorous that the word 'draconian' came to mean harsh and rigid. It was said of his laws that they were written in blood." A rebellion followed, led by Cylon, and in 594 B. C., Solon, one of "the seven wise men of Greece," prepared a new constitution. In this he aimed to relieve the oppression by a more popular government, and while he left the power mainly in the hands of the upper class he paved the way for democracy by admitting to citizenship and a share in the government all free-born Athenians. By various provisions he attempted to relieve the poverty and distress of the people. But his legislation failed to satisfy and three parties arose—the party under Lycurgus, a party headed by Pisistratus, and a middle party under Megacles.

Athens now passed through a period of the rule of the Tyrants and the Pisistratids until Cleisthenes, attaching himself to the popular party and making such changes in the constitution that he became the founder of the Athenian Democracy. "Under this system of free government, the energy of the Athenian people was developed with amazing rapidity.

The spirit of patriotism, of zeal for the honor and welfare of Athens, rose to a high pitch. The power and resources of the city increased in a proportionate degree. Culture kept pace with prosperity." Under these new conditions, which fully justified the wisdom of Clisthenes, the strength of Athens so increased that in 500 B. C., she was supreme in Middle Greece and the rival of Sparta, the dominant power in the Peloponnese.

Let us pause at this point to get the full bearing of these developments not only upon the history of Greece but upon the advancement of the race in the establishment of free institutions. It is humanity back in antiquity struggling for its larger individualism, the dominating element of modern civilization. Here we find the germs of modern institutions and ideals. The advance towards human liberty was begun in the organization of the Spartan State. In Athens we see the steady growth from the period of the kings, through the office of the Archons, the demands of the people, to the operation of the principles of democracy, and under the latter the justification of government by the people for the people.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. What were the three classes in the Spartan State? Who alone could be citizens?
2. What was the aim and policy of the State regarding the wealth of its citizens?
3. How was the Spartan Assembly constituted? What were its powers and functions?

4. What were the functions of the Council of Elders?
 5. What was the power of the Ephors and how did it compare with that of other offices?
 6. How did the State exercise its discipline over its subjects, including male and female?
 7. Lycurgus and his work. Plutarch's *Lycurgus*.
 8. When did the period of the Archons in Athens begin?
 9. What led to the revolt of Cylon and how did this bring about Draco's legislation?
 10. What were some of the severities of his laws?
 11. Into what four classes, according to their income, did Solon divide the citizens?
 12. What were some of his remedies against existing evils?
 13. The reforms of Solon. Aristotle's *Politics*, iii, 14; iv, 10. Grote's History, vol. iii, chs. x, xi.
 14. What were the great benefits of the rule of Pisistratus?
 15. Pisistratus. Aristotle's *Constitution of Athens*.
 16. Who were the Alcmaeonidæ and what did they do for Athens?
 17. What were some of the great changes made in the constitution by Clisthenes, and how were they calculated to establish a democracy?
 18. Citizenship under Clisthenes. Botsford's *Athenian Constitution*, 198, 199. *History of All Nations*, vol. iii, 145 f.
3. *The Golden Age.*
- In the steady advance of Grecian life and achievement we come to that period of war and struggle that was the vestibule

of Hellenic civilization, and on the battlefield of Marathon stand at the birthplace of Grecian glory.

(1) The Persian Wars.

Persia was the dominant power in the world, and under her dominion the Greek colonies in Asia Minor had been held for over forty years. Hippias had been in the court of Darius urging him to open a war against his own country, and the Greeks, knowing that it was the purpose to restore this tyrant to power determined to cast off the Persian yoke. After seven years the revolt was subdued, and to punish the Athenians, Darius sent under the guidance of Hippias a force of 120,000 men while but 10,000 Athenians awaited on the slope of Mount Pentelicus. On the plain of Marathon was presented one of the most unusual spectacles in the history of human conflict—a small band of valiant men arrayed against a force twelve times their number. But in that engagement lay a glorious future, the creation of new elements in the world's civilization. By the tactics of Miltiades the Persians were defeated and routed.

Determined to crush Greece and recover what had been lost at Marathon, Darius set about securing an overwhelming force. Dying in the midst of these preparations (486 B. C.), his son Xerxes continued the enterprise, and in 480 B. C., set out with his army of 1,700,000 infantry and 80,000 cavalry, while the fleet numbered over 4,000 vessels all told.

Themistocles was the leading man in Athens and he counselled his State to enlarge her naval force. In a naval battle

while the Persian armada suffered the more, the Greek fleet was badly crippled.

The Spartan king, Leonidas, with less than 5,000 men held the pass of Thermopylæ and awaited the mighty force of Xerxes. So successfully did they resist the Persians that Xerxes despaired of success when a Greek betrayed to him a path across the mountain. Overwhelmed by force of numbers the Greeks were annihilated while the Persians lost 20,000 men.

The way was now open for the capture of Athens and laying of Attica in desolation. Themistocles planned to bring the Persian fleet into the narrow straits of Salamis and placed the Grecian fleet of 380 ships for an attack. The ruse he employed succeeded, and Salamis stands on the page of Grecian history as one of her great victories. The retreat of Xerxes "may be regarded as the virtual decision of that great conflict between eastern despotism and European liberty, which forms one of the most important chapters in the history of the world."

Again did Persia attempt the conquest of Greece and at Plataea suffered a terrible defeat, while on the same day both army and fleet were crushed at Mycale. "The effect of Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis, Plataea and Mycale was to give the death blow to Persian rule in Europe. Grecian valor had saved a continent from eastern slavery and barbarism."

It is this great result that claims our special attention. On the field of battle the old civilization meets the new power. By the force of arms mighty issues are being settled of far greater moment than simply the military success of this or that force. These conflicts are decisive in human history in changing the

whole course of events. The world is involved. It is of tremendous importance whether in these struggles barbarism is to gain a new hold upon humanity, or whether they are to open the way for a higher civilization to burst into glory and be carried to all mankind.

(2) The Periclean Age.

Between the close of the Persian Wars and the Peloponnesian War was a period of about fifty years, an interval of one of the most glorious epochs in Grecian history. "The Age of Pericles is that epoch in which Athens attained the glorious height in art, architecture, poetry, government and statesmanship which made her the cynosure of all succeeding ages."

The establishment of the Athenian supremacy may be reckoned from 479 to 462 B. C. Athens was rebuilt. The confederacy of Delos, composed of Athens, several states of Middle Greece, the islands of the Ægean and Greek states of Asia Minor, was established. This confederacy became an Athenian Empire. Thus the increase in Athenian power was the result of the Persian Wars. The government was developed, progress in liberty yielded greater liberty to the citizen and the beginnings of a republic were laid.

Pericles, the grand-nephew of Clisthenes, was brought under the intellectual influence of the sophist Damon, Zeno and Anaxagoras. He became the leader of the popular party, built the walls connecting Athens with the Piræus and adorned the city with a great system of public architectural works. His greatest work for the State lay in his system of coloniza-

tion as related to Thracian Chersonesus, the island of Naxos Andros, Lemnos, Imbros and Scyros and other sections. But the name of Pericles stands for more than these things. "Although the legislation enacted under the influence of Pericles left a profound impression upon the constitution of Athens; although his policy as an administrator promoted the wealth and glory of the state; and although his orations moved the people as they had never been moved before, it is not as a law-giver, a statesman or an orator that he is best known. It was rather as a patron of art, architecture and literature that he made his age the most brilliant intellectual epoch in Athenian history." It is only necessary to give the names that have immortalized this period and have made it the Golden Age of Greece: Ictinus, Callicrates, Phidias, Polygnotus, Æschylus, Sophocles, Herodotus, Socrates, Plato, Euripides, Aristophanes, Thucydides, Praxiteles, Xenophon, Isocrates. Within so brief a period the world has never given another such list of names to enlarge and enrich our intellectual development. "Never before had there been such a union of the material and intellectual elements of civilization at the seat of empire. Literature and art had been carried to the utmost perfection possible to human genius."

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. Why did Hippias enter the Persian court and seek to involve Persia in war with Greece?
2. What act of the Greeks led Darius into the first conflict with them?

3. What failure caused the fall of Miltiades?
4. In what battle did the Greek States form a union?
5. Themistocles. Plutarch's *Themistocles and Aristides*.
6. What was the offense and punishment of Pausanias?
7. Who was the more honorable and patriotic, Themistocles or Aristides?
8. What were the conditions leading to the Confederacy of Delos, and what was required of each member of the league?
9. What measures did Athens adopt when she came to supremacy in the confederation?
10. What service did Cimon render the State?
11. Training for Athenian citizenship. Freeman's *Federal Government*, pp. 37-43.
12. Was Pericles an Archon? What position did he hold in the State?
13. What constitutional changes under Pericles made Athens a complete democracy?
14. The Character of Pericles. Plutarch's *Pericles*. Sheldon's *General History*, 102-105.
15. Influence of the wife of Pericles upon his life. Landon's *Pericles and Aspasia*.

4. *Period of Decline.*

On the weakness of the Empire Myer has made some important observations, a few of which we note: "But there were elements of weakness in the splendid structure. The subject cities of the empire were the slaves of Athens . . . Nat-

urally they regarded Athens as the destroyer of Hellenic liberties and watched impatiently for the first favorable moment to revolt and throw off the hateful yoke. Hence the Athenian Empire rested upon a foundation of sand.

"Had Athens, instead of enslaving her confederates of the Delian league, only been able to find out some way of retaining them as allies in an equal union—a great and perhaps impossible task in that age of the world—as head of the federated Greek race, she might have secured for Hellas the sovereignty of the Mediterranean, and the history of Rome might have ended with the first century of the Republic.

"Furthermore, in his system of payment for the most common public services and of wholesale public gratuities, Pericles had introduced or encouraged practices that had the same demoralizing effects upon the Athenians that the free distribution of grain at Rome had upon the Roman populace. These pernicious customs cast discredit upon labor, destroyed frugality and fostered idleness, thus sapping the virtue and strength of the Athenian democracy.

"Illustrations of these weaknesses, as well as of the strength of the Athenian Empire, will be afforded by the great struggle between Athens and Sparta, known as the Peloponnesian War."

In turning to this page of Grecian history we see the outworking of great abiding principles. We have seen how great states are born, we now see how they die. Athens cannot violate fundamental law with impunity. When she refused to be guided by the policy of Aristides and robbed her allies of

treasure and liberty, she entered a downward course that issued in ruin.

(1) The Peloponnesian War.

We have already suggested the cause of the war in speaking of the desire on the part of the weaker states to throw off the Athenian yoke. Again, Sparta was as ambitious to be the dominating power as was Athens.

There were three periods of the war. The First Period, 431-421. At the close of the period the Athenians were defeated in the battle of Amphipolis, while the Spartans sustained heavy losses.

The Second Period, 421-413. In this period Alcibiades, the pupil of Socrates, figured largely both in connection with the expedition to Sicily and his treasonable conduct. The period ended with the failure of the expedition, a blow from which Athens suffered severely.

The Third Period, 413-404. A new constitution was adopted, setting aside the laws of Solon and Cleisthenes, which turned the government into an aristocracy; but at the end of six months the democracy was re-established. Alcibiades was reinstated. The battle of Ægospotami (405 B. C.) practically decided the war. Athens was forced to surrender and Sparta dictated her terms of peace. "With the fall of Athens the opportunity for welding the Grecian states into an empire was lost. Sparta was unequal to the task and the country soon fell under the arms and corruption of Persia, which soon extended her rule over the Asiatic Greeks. The reinstatement of Per-

sian domination marked the downfall of Greek political freedom, which was as dear to Sparta as to Athens."

Questions.

Thucydides is the great historian of the war. For the terrible plague in the third year of the war read his preface to the *History of the Peloponnesian War*. Plutarch's *Lives—Alcibiades and Nicias* and *Freeman's Story of Sicily* should be read in connection with the closing years of the war. *Decisive Battles of the World*, Ch. ii, should be read for the defeat of the Athenians at Syracuse.

(a) Who were the Athenian allies? The Spartan?

(b) What was the occasion of the Spartan invasion of Attica in the first period?

(c) What did Athens intend by the expedition to Sicily, and in this connection what was the mutilation of the Hermæ?

(d) In what sense was the battle of Syracuse one of the decisive battles of the world?

(e) In the third period what misfortunes befell Athens from a Persian alliance with Sparta?

(f) What part did Alcibiades take in replacing the democracy by an aristocracy? What were the provisions of the new constitution?

(g) What terms of peace were dictated by Sparta?

(2) The Spartan and Theban Supremacy.

With the fall of Athens Sparta was utterly incapable of unifying the Grecian states, and the brief period of her su-

premacv (404-371 B. C.) was one of conflict which issued in her own downfall.

Theban leader Epaminondas announced the decision that Thebes would no longer submit to Spartan rule, and in the remarkable battle of Leuctra which followed completely defeated the Spartans. The nine years of Theban supremacy were filled with war, and in 338 Greece was defeated and ruined by Philip of Macedon.

Questions and Topics for Study.

(a) How did the thirty tyrants come to rule, and how was it characterized?

(b) Under what conditions was the Constitution restored?

(c) What was the occasion of the expedition of the Ten Thousand?

(d) The retreat of the Ten Thousand. Xenophon's *Anabasis*. Grote's *History*, Vol. vii., 173-348.

(e) A comparison of Athenian and Spartan rule. Cox's *Athenian Empire*, 229-231.

(f) What remarkable tactics were employed by Epaminondas in the battle of Leuctra?

(g) What measures did Philip employ to secure control of Greece, and what was the success of Demosthenes in opposing his schemes?

(h) Philip and Demosthenes. Demosthenes' *Philippics* and *On the Crown*.

(3) Alexander the Great.

We have traced the rise and consummation of the Athenian State together with the brilliant civilization in art, literature and philosophy which she created. We have seen under what conditions she declined and fell. It now remains for a new power and personality to take this glorious intellectual achievement, carry it far beyond the national bounds and give it world-wide significance. What Athens could not do for herself, after she fell from her high political eminence, is to be done for her by another, and while dead as to political distinction is alive again in that of which she was most essentially representative. "Alexander revolutionized the East, or so much of it as was connected with the West by intercourse or reciprocal influence. The results of a conquest effected in ten years continued for as many centuries, and remain in some respects to the present day. The Hellenization of Western Asia and Northeastern Africa, which dates from Alexander's successes, is one of the most remarkable facts in the history of the human race, and one of those most pregnant with important consequences."

With his hand firmly laid upon Greece he undertakes the conquest of Asia. The pupil of Aristotle, the greatest mind of Greece, there was developed in him a love for art, poetry and philosophy. Whatever may have been his ambition to create for himself a name greater than that of any commander or statesman, the ultimate purpose of his conquest was to extend over Asia the Hellenic civilization and not simply the conquest of its peoples. As one of the most intellectual men of his time we view his conquest from an altogether mistaken

angle by laying the chief emphasis upon his military successes. In their largest significance they must be interpreted in terms of his intellectual enterprises. Arnold truly says "unlike the transient whirlwinds of Asiatic warfare, the advance of the Macedonian leader was no less deliberate than rapid; at every step the Greek power took root, and the language and civilization of Greece were planted from the shores of the Ægean to the banks of the Indus, from the Caspian to the cataracts of the Nile, to exist actually for nearly a thousand years, and in their effects to endure forever." When he carried conquests into Asia he "was accompanied by poets, historians, philosophers and scientists."

Alexandria, the second Athens, he founded, nations yielded to his rule, by his mighty hand in the battle of Arbela he laid in ruins Persia the second universal empire, he established and consolidated the new world-empire, but in it all the one outstanding fact which invests the achievements of this mighty conqueror with supreme significance was the establishment of the empire of Grecian civilization. All that that brilliant race had done by the great souls who had labored in the realm of thought has been gathered up and scattered as seed in the world's soil and thus advanced humanity's intellectual evolution.

Questions and Topics for Study.

For this section the student will find very helpful Benjamin Ide Wheeler's excellent work, *Alexander the Great*, Mahaffy's

The Story of Alexander's Empire, Freeman's *Periods of European History*, Lecture I, *History of All Nations*.

1. What difficulties stood in Alexander's way in succeeding his father, and how did he deal with them?
2. When did he enter upon his Asiatic conquests?
3. What was the Gordian knot?
4. Where was fought the battle of Issus and of what great service was the victory to Alexander's plans?
5. How long did it take him to reduce Tyre, Gaza and Egypt?
6. What great importance attaches to the founding of Alexandria in the point of commercial position?
7. When was the battle of Arbela fought, which army was under the most favorable conditions, and what three capitals at once surrendered to Alexander?
8. The Macedonian phalanx. Curteis' *Rise of the Macedonian Empire*.
9. What length of time was devoted to the conquest of India? How many new cities did he establish in this region?
10. What method did Alexander employ in bringing the East into union with the West?
12. What city did the conqueror choose as the capital of his empire, and what honors were shown him there?
13. What enterprises had he in hand when death overtook him? How long did he reign, and at what age did he die?
14. Summarize the Conquests of Alexander.
15. Alexander's greatness poetically represented. Dryden's ode, *Alexander's Feast*.

16. In the disintegration of the empire how was it divided between Alexander's four generals?

17. In what two battles was Macedonia overthrown by Rome?

18. When was the political life of Greece extinguished and made a Roman province?

Grecian Civilization.

With the Grecian four types of civilization have come before us in our study of the ancient world which mark the general progress of the race from century to century. The Egyptians invented paper making and symbolic writing. The Chinese invented printing by engraved blocks. The nations of the Tigris-Euphrates region invented cuneiform writing and the preservation of their records on clay tablets. The Greeks founded the State on principles of intellectual and political liberty and created a brilliant civilization in literature and art.

The Grecian life breathes the spirit of humanity. Of the nations of antiquity she alone opened her arms to the world at large. "The characteristics of the Greek brought him into sympathy with man as man, and made him in the ancient world the representative of universal humanity. The Jew and the Roman were by nature exclusive. The Jew could fraternize readily with him only who came from Abraham and received the prophets; the Roman with him only who wielded power in the empire or was born to a place in the empire. The full-grown Jew was a Pharisee; the full-grown

Roman a Cæsar; but the full-grown Greek was a world-man."

While their religion was based upon certain fundamental ideas there was no uniform religious system peculiar to the Greeks. There was diversity in it all, and in this realm the versatility and flexibility of the Greek character are clearly defined.

In architecture he brought forth the three great orders and exemplified them in columns and temples, the Theseum exhibiting the Doric, the Temple of Diana the Ionic, and the Corinthian type in the Corinthian capital and entablature.

Sculpture was regarded by them as a divine communication and only the æsthetic temperament of the Greek could create the Venus de Milo, statue of Athena, Zeus, the undraped Aphrodite, the Faun, the Colossus at Rhodes, etc.

Of Greek literature little can be said within our space. In poetry, oratory and philosophy the Greeks have never been surpassed. To them belongs Homer, the greatest of all epic poets of any age or people. His great works constitute the Bible of the Greeks. Any sort of acquaintance with the epic and didactic poets, the lyric poets, the dramatists, historians and orators of Greece together with her philosophers, will at once justify all that has been said regarding the grandeur and glory of this Hellenic civilization.

In philosophy the Greek mind did not develop a single system but many systems. Philosophical thinking, the inquiry relative to the causes of things and the ultimate grounds of knowledge, in the proper sense of the word originated with the Greeks, when Thales raised the question as to the funda-

mental explanation of phenomena. Pre-Socratic philosophy carries us through the five schools as indicated by the chart, ending with the disquisitions and negative tendencies of the Sophists. The reaction began with Socrates, who established the foundations of positive knowledge which was carried to its fuller development by Plato and Aristotle. Pose-Aristotelian philosophy took three leading forms—Stoicism as represented by Zeno, Epicureanism as set forth by Epicurus and Scepticism having Pyrrho as its leading exponent. In these great systems Greece introduced the world to intellectual processes in the search for the fundamental and taught it to think. She exhibited the world of thought, reason and critical inquiry and raised humanity to a new plane in the realm of the rational.

The Mental Order.

We will remember that Orientalism represented the Material Order and will call to mind what was said in that connection. At that stage of human progress that was as far as the race could reach. At the hand of Alexander, Persia went to her grave and new and sweeping conquests filled the world with new ideals. At the close of our studies in Orientalism we raised the question whether there was something better in store for the race, something that would advance humanity in its development and lift it to a higher plane. That question has been abundantly answered by the Grecian civilization worked out during the days of Athen's glory and carried to the world by the Macedonian conqueror. No one stops to question

whether the new order is an advance upon the old. It marks a long step forward in the evolution of the race, a hand leading it to the very door of unexplored regions.

The Grecian idea was the creation of the perfect man by mental processes. He was the representative of the intellectual order. His position expressed the idea that there is nothing great in the world but man, and nothing great in man but mind. Hence to attain to the perfect man is to reach the highest mental development. With such an ideal the Greek was inspired to think himself into greatness, into all that would bring to view the vast range of thought and feeling. No other race has thought so deeply or produced as much. She cannot be effaced. She lives in her ideals and marvelous creations. She gave the human mind an impulse such as it never received from another hand. At the feet of this teacher the world still sits and draws from her instruction and inspiration. She fashioned her gods in the image of men, and from making gods like men she would make men like unto the gods.

And now standing upon the peaks to which Greece has conducted us, we again raise the question is there anything more that lies within the power of antiquity to do for the race? Is she exhausted of her resources? Is there something else fundamental in our human constitution that it is the mission of some other great State, some other great civilization, to bring forth, realize, and universalize? What else are we besides being creatures of material appreciations and having intellectual possibilities? The last great movement of antiquity will

answer that question before it passes from the stage of action. And thus by the tracing of human struggle and achievement through the ages we discover the *essentials of history*.

The Chart.

We are now in a position to review the facts of this great moment by the chart. It presents in a condensed form all we

have said in this section of our study. Grasp the arrangement of the chart in seeing its central fact about which all is related. This is the essential thing. However much may be remembered or forgotten of the particulars lay hold of the great general truth, that of which this State is essentially representative, and thus keep well in hand these historic mile-stones in the onward march of humanity.

Rome-Fourth Universal Empire

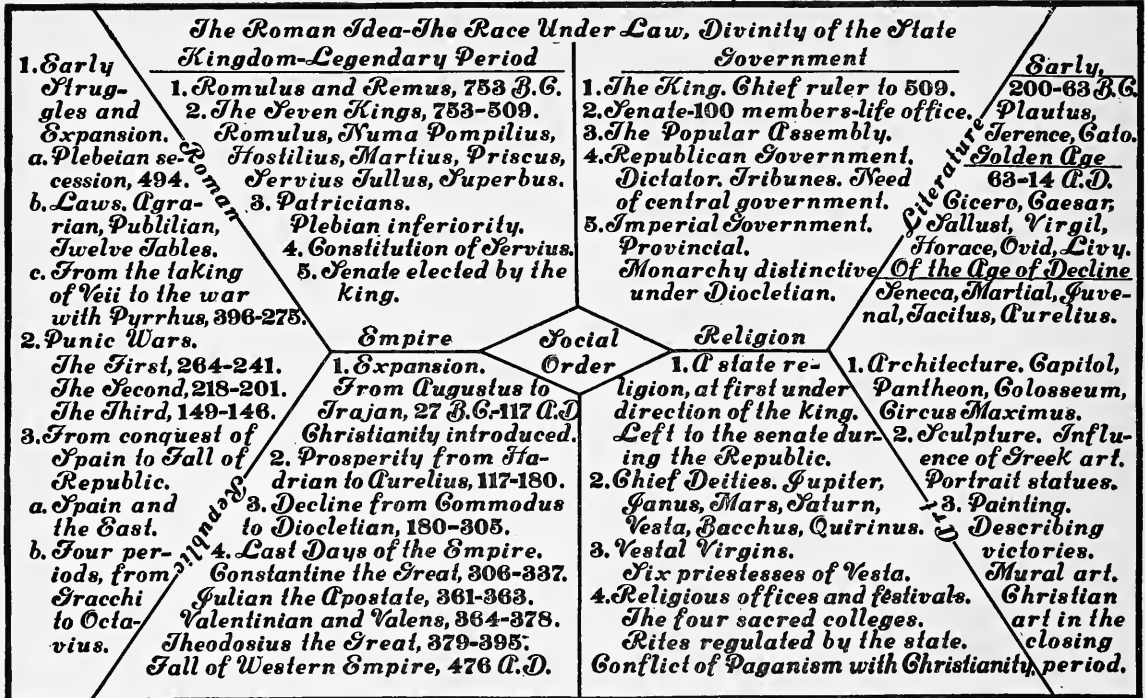


Chart 5

ROME—FOURTH UNIVERSAL EMPIRE

A great State does not cease to exist when it comes to its decline, when its power is broken and a new State holds sway. It was not necessary for the empire of Alexander to continue in order to accomplish the mission of Greece. It was because she did accomplish it that she ceased to exist, viewing empires from the standpoint of their contribution to human progress. Her influence is to be felt throughout the period that is to follow, guiding much of the new civilization Rome is to create. Thus the ruling interests of one State find their fuller expression in the next.

What was said in the introductory remarks relative to Greece applies to the advent of the Fourth Universal Empire. We saw how certain questions were answered by the Grecian civilization. As we stand at the dawn of a new order other questions arise, just as we will find that history is a series of interrogation points but constantly removed. It was an important question whether we would find a true evolutionary procedure in the world-development. Greece answered that question in the affirmative, in showing how the mental follows the material. So far so good. It remains to be seen whether Rome will exhibit man in a new order of his being that required for its full expression just such a universal State. This was the question raised at the close of our last study, *i. e.*, what remained that had not found distinction in

Greece; what fundamental fact of our life awaited its real genesis and unfolding.

If there is such and it is the province of Rome to call it forth then we will readily understand two things: first, that her problem is different from the Grecian and that a still larger intellectual achievement is not the thing required; and, second, that the movement is a progressive one. In other words in what sense and degree is the history of these empires the discovery of basic human conditions and possibilities? Only as this fundamental question is answered can it be said that our study of these States have brought us true returns.

Before taking up the facts of this new empire one thing should be emphasized. It is the importance of the intellectual civilization preceding Rome exerting a profound influence upon these Roman tendencies which, without the humanizing influence of Greece, would have been cruel in the extreme. The Roman was the man of iron and was so represented by Daniels' Historic Man in the limbs and feet of iron (Dan. ii). His was an iron rule, and his tendency was to place his iron heel upon the neck of humanity. It was the Grecian civilization that modified and tempered what otherwise would have been more cruel and crushing than it was.

As we enter this study it is for us to discover the ruling principle of this last world-empire; to note its vital signifi-

cance in the racial development; and to observe at what point in its constitutional unfolding Rome leaves the race; and also the existing elements of civilization with which the Medieval Age was provided at the fall of the Western Empire.

At the close of our study we will be prepared for the remarks to be made on the central fact of the chart.

THE ROMAN KINGDOM.

It is hardly necessary to call attention to the fact that the word Rome is used in different senses, according to the historic period in connection with which it is spoken. It might mean a small section of land about the Palatine hill, or the capital of Italy, or the world over which it held dominion.

Until recently, or prior to the nineteenth century, historians quite generally accepted the events of the legendary period as historically true, and some continue to do so. The German scholar Niebuhr has rendered valuable service in showing that there is little foundation for the stories in Roman history prior to 390 B. C. While undoubtedly kings ruled over the Romans for a time, yet "the stories told in later times respecting the kings, their names and doings are quite unworthy of credit. They rest upon no contemporary evidence or sure tradition. . . they are laden with other improbabilities which prove them to be the fruit of the imagination. They contain impossibilities in chronology." On the other hand, the legends give us certain reliable facts, as, for example, that the Sabines invaded Latium and confederated with the Romans in one state. "The tradition of a doubling of the Senate and of the

two kings, Romulus and Tatius, although not in a literal form historical, is believed to be a reminiscence of this union."

Adopting 753 B. C., as the date of the founding of Rome, a glance over the nations will show what stage had been reached in the history and civilization of the great states when Rome began her life. By consulting the chart system the student can quickly see what point had been reached in Egyptian life and development when Rome appeared; what was the historic period and what were the ruling ideas in China and India; that the Jews had been a divided monarchy for nearly two hundred years, and Israel, the northern kingdom, was within thirty-one years of its extinction; the advancement being made in Assyria in the fortunes of the state and the development of architecture and art; and the closing century of the old Babylonian Empire and the preparation of the first great world-power; that Greece was in her formative period, the Spartans gaining control of the Peloponnesus. A survey of these contemporaneous events will show the existing conditions in the world when Rome appeared, and during her development what states must rise and fall before she should come to her world-dominion. Orientalism as represented by the civilization of Babylon and Persia had not yet arisen. The Golden Age of Athens was nearly 300 years in the future. By the time that Rome emerged from the kingdom period and the Republic was established, Babylon had passed through her mighty conquests and had fallen, Persia was the dominant state and in conflict with Greece; Sparta was supreme in the Peloponnesus and Athens in Middle Greece.

Rome was under Patrician rule, holding the common people under oppression. At the moment that the Grecian democracy was established the plebeians were struggling for freedom in Rome. The expulsion of the kings (509 B. C.) closed the first period of Roman history and was the dawn of a new era.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. The geographical conditions of Italy that were calculated to make its history different from that of Greece. West's *Ancient History*, pp. 249-50, 254-56; Freeman's *Historical Geography of Europe*, Vol. I, 7-9, 43-49; Mommsen's *History of Rome*, Vol. I, chs. i-ii.
2. Who were the early inhabitants of Rome?
3. What is the story of the founding of Rome?
4. With whom did the Romans unite to form one nation?
5. What were the two great classes in Rome, and how were they distinguished from each other?
6. By whom was the first Roman constitution framed, and what were its chief provisions?
7. How was the *Comitia Curiata* formed and what were its three distinct powers?
8. What was the function of the Senate?
9. What were the powers and rights of the king?
10. How was the reign of each of the Seven Kings distinguished, and who was the greatest of the kings?
11. The Roman Forum. *History of All Nations*, Vol. IV, 52, 100. The Circus Maximus, *History of All Nations*, Vol.

IV, 52, 128. The Cloaca Maxima, *History of All Nations*, Vol. IV, 51.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

This period of Roman history extends from 509 to 31 B. C. It is a period of great importance not only in Roman history, but that of the whole world. It exhibits the mighty onward movement of this great state, its territorial expansion and governmental development. From this time on we shall be able to see, in the unfolding of Roman life and institutions, the difference between the Roman character and the Grecian. We shall see that while Greece stands for art and culture, Rome stands for law and organization. It is the period establishing the supremacy of the State and that is to hold such a pre-eminent place throughout Roman history, and that is to give Rome its distinctive place in the world. During this extended period Athens reached the zenith of her glory, passed through the Peloponnesian Wars, fell into decline, was brought under Sparta and Thebes. Alexander has achieved his mighty conquests and carried Grecian civilization everywhere. His empire has disintegrated and passed into the hands of his generals. And towards the close of the Roman Republic Greece becomes a Roman province. During this period two great empires, Persia and the empire of Alexander, are brought to an end. Thus in these great world-changes the race passed from stage to stage in its historic evolution. But we should be careful to note that it is man himself that is operative, giving expression to his unfolding life in these

great revolutions and creating new states to the death of others in seeking his larger self-realization. To fail to properly understand this vital fact is to miss the meaning of historic movements and the fundamental significance of life itself. All that the history of Greece means to us is the difference between what man was in the lower station in Orientalism and the manhood to which he has attained under new conditions. In Rome a new phase of his nature is exhibited. It is the same man—the one human race—constituted with certain intellectual, moral and spiritual powers exactly the same in kind whether we find him in Egypt, Babylonia, Greece or Rome. The race is a unit and history is the same, whose function is to set forth or register this growing man or the development of his nature and possibilities.

I. The Struggle for Liberty.

Nearly a century before the opening of this period Solon in Athens had framed his constitution that opened the way for Grecian democracy, and about the close of the century Clis-thenes consummated it by his reforms. A few years later in Rome, the plebeians suffering under the oppression of the patricians, seceded and planned to set up a government of their own. At the solicitation of the patricians they agreed to return on three conditions, the last of which that two plebeians should be elected yearly by the people, called Tribunes, for the purpose of protecting their interests and securing to them their legal rights, marked a forward step in Roman legisla-

tion. The common people attained to representation in the government and thus with the Republic we have a new form of state.

Under these conditions, the continued struggle between patrician and plebeian, laws were formulated. The first the Agrarian Laws dealing with public lands in the protection of plebeian rights. Arnold declares that to these laws "Rome owed all her future greatness." Then followed in 471 B. C. the Publilian Law in which the number of tribunes was raised to five. When the patricians attempted to thwart the purpose of this law by controlling unjustly the votes of the Assembly, the tribunes demanded such constitutional changes which would secure justice to both classes, and in the working out of the same the decemvirate was created. A committee was sent to Greece to study the Grecian laws and to see how the laws of Solon might contribute to their new legal structure. Thus the influence of the Grecian democracy in the formation of the Roman Republic. Ten Tables were prepared, and to these were added two tables by the second decemvirs, and thus was constituted the *Twelve Tables of the Law*, the first systematic written statement of Roman law, and which Livy declared to be "the foundation of all law, both public and private." The Roman State stands for law, and it is a matter of first importance that we understand the beginning of her system and the conditions under which it was created. It was not a cause but a result, the result of an awakening to a larger sense of liberty and justice.

II. Expansion and Consolidation.

The Roman domain had an area about equal to that of Rhode Island at the beginning of the fourth century B. C. By 269 B. C., all Italy was included in her dominion and the Greek cities ceased their resistance. These conquests began with the taking of Veii, from which time dates the establishment of a paid standing army. Rome was sacked by the Gauls and rebuilt, but in the conditions brought about it looked serious for Roman advancement and the rights and liberties of the plebeians. At this moment arose a tribune, Licinius, who altered the course of Rome and the fate of the world by what is known as the Licinian Laws, opening the way for the plebeians to hold the office of consul, remedying existing abuses, and making the plebeians eligible to the office of dictator, to the censorship, the prætorship and priesthood. All of these offices were opened by 300 B. C. Then followed the series of conquests by the Samnite and Latin wars and war with Pyrrhus, the latter being "the first trial of strength between Macedonized Greece and Rome," and ending in the expansion of the Roman domains.

The wisdom of Rome was manifested in halting in her work of conquest and adding to her dominion more territory until she had consolidated Italy into a homogenous state and a central government. This unification was secured principally by five means: "She established colonies in the conquered territory; she formed a public land policy; she adopted a comprehensive military system; she built military roads, and she organized a navy."

III. The Punic Wars.

Carthage was founded by the Phœnicians about 850 B. C., as we noted in a former study. She was the leading city of the Mediterranean, and sustained colonies in Sicily, Africa and Spain. Her genius was commercial not military, while the Roman genius was for conquest and government. Carthage was her great rival in commerce and she decided to seize this territory and add it to her dominion.

1. The First Punic War, 264-241 B. C.

Sicily, for the possession of which the Greeks and Carthaginians had contended over a century before this time, was the occasion of this war. It issued in the defeat of Carthage and the taking over by Rome of Sicily and the islands between it and Italy. Thus a fourth class was added to the Roman Domain—subjects occupying conquered territory. Such territory outside of Italy was called a province.

2. The Second Punic War, 218-201 B. C.

Having lost territory Carthage set out to find new territory in Spain. Hannibal seized Saguntum, a Greek city, and this being a Roman ally was the occasion of the second war with Carthage. The invasion of Italy by Hannibal brought disaster to Rome, but at Zama he met his first defeat. But it ended the war and brought Carthage under a heavy indemnity.

3. The Third Punic War, 149-146 B. C.

The kingdom of Numidia, west of Carthage, became the occasion of this war. In her attempt to save her territory from the king of Numidia Carthage was provoked to war, which Rome declared to be a violation of the treaty with her and was glad of the excuse to take up arms against her. The city was completely destroyed and the territory became a Roman province the same year that Greece became a province.

Following these wars was the conquest of Spain and the East, organizing the territory in Asia Minor as the Kingdom of Asia.

Thus in this period of 131 years, from the consolidation of Italy and the beginning of these conflicts, we see the large amount of territory brought into submission to Rome and placed under her governmental control. These conquests made it necessary for Rome to organize governments for the new provinces. Alexander brought to his new subjects Grecian civilization; Rome brought legislation.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. What oppressions incited the secession of the Plebeians? In what manner would such a secession have affected the Roman State?
2. What was the primary object of the Agrarian Laws?
3. In what way was the Publilian Law calculated to benefit the plebeians?
4. With what matters did the Twelve Tables mainly deal?

5. The Roman Constitution. Tighe's *Development of the Roman Constitution*, ch. v. Granrud's *Roman Constitutional History*.

6. What were the duties of Censors and Questors, and what did the patricians expect to gain by these offices?

7. Position of the plebeian in the State. Mommsen's *History*, Vol. I, 109-114; Ihne's *Early Rome*, 114-116.

8. What were the chief provisions of the Licinian Law?

9. What occasioned the Samnite and Latin wars?

10. The conquest of Italy. Pelham's *Outlines of Roman History*, 68-97. *History of All Nations*, Vol. IV, 124f, 132.

11. What were the provisions in the formation of Roman colonies, and how were they distinguished from the Latin colonies?

12. The Roman military system. West's *Ancient History*, 310-312.

13. Was the destruction of Carthage necessary to Roman interests?

14. Hannibal. Morris' *Hannibal* (Heroes of the Nations series).

IV. Fall of the Republic, 133-31 B. C.

We come to the closing century of the Republic, an era of revolution and internal strife. The remarkable thing is that with their arms turned against one another the work of conquest still continued. While the distinction between patricians and plebeians no longer existed the lower class rapidly in-

creased. "The gulf between the poor and the rich was constantly widening. The last Italian colony was sent out in 177 B. C., and the lands of Italy were all taken up. Slaves furnished labor at the cost of their bare subsistence. It was hard for a poor man to gain a living. Had the *Licinian Laws* been carried out, the situation would have been different. The public lands were occupied by the members of some forty or fifty aristocratic families, and by a certain number of wealthy Italians. A great proletariat—a needy and disaffected lower class—was growing up, which boded no good to the state." During the last two centuries of the Republic the Senate held the supreme place in the State, and with the increase of its power came the declension of the *comitia curiata*, *comitia centuriata* and *comitia tributa*. The closing century of the Republic falls into four periods:

1. The Gracchi.

The condition of the poor as noted above led Tiberius Gracchus to propose his Agrarian Laws. His measures in behalf of the oppressed cost him his life. His brother Gaius proposed measures of a much more radical nature. Disorders resulted and he too was slain by the *optimates*. The one measure that continued to exist, the cheap sale of corn, was the most unwise of his laws.

2. Marius and Sulla.

The removal of the Gracchi relieved the restraint upon the Senate, which now committed itself to a policy of oppression

and tyranny that had not been exceeded at any time in the history of Rome, and it found expression in the Jugurthine War, in which Marius and Sulla participated.

This was followed by the Social or Italian War, 90-88 B. C. The slaying of Drusus for proposing that the allies of Rome be admitted to citizenship led the allies to revolt, and it was only by the action of the State in offering citizenship to those who would lay down their arms and those who had not joined the revolution that probably saved Rome from the most disastrous results.

Then followed the Mithridatic War, which placed in jeopardy the Roman dominions in the East.

3. Cæsar and the First Triumvirate.

The tribunes were restored to power by Pompey and piracy swept from the seas. Given command of the Asiatic army, within the space of five years he crushed the king of Pontus and conquered Asia Minor, Syria, Phœnicia and Judæa.

It was during this time that the state was endangered by Catiline's conspiracy to overthrow the government. It was the consul Cicero who detected the plot and crushed it by the four orations against Catiline, delivered before the Senate and the people. For this service the Senate conferred upon him the title of Father of his Country.

Julius Cæsar was the nephew of the wife of Marius and the father-in-law of Pompey. He held various offices in the State, and in 60 B. C., formed with Crassus and Pompey the first

triumvirate. He then undertook the conquest of Gaul, "and laid a foundation for a military reputation which has endured to the present time." He crossed the Rhine and defeated the Germans, and in 55-54 B. C. he entered Britain and conquered portions of the south.

His quarrel with Pompey resulted in his becoming the absolute ruler of Rome and being made Dictator by the Senate. "He saw that the world could no longer be governed by the Roman rabble and that monarchy was the only alternative. He ruled under the form of the old constitution. The whole tendency of his measures, which were mostly of a very wholesome character, was not only to remedy abuses of administration, but to found a system of orderly administration in which Rome should be not the sole *mistress*, but simply the *capital*, of the world-wide community which had been subjected to her authority. . . . Being raised to the supreme power, he sought to rule according to the wise and liberal ideas which were suggested by the actual condition of the world, and the undesirableness of a continued domination of a single city, with such a populace as that of Rome. Before he could carry out his large scheme he was cut down."

The only way by which the jealous nobles could again be enriched by the spoils that attended the old order of tyranny and misrule was that Cæsar and his administration should cease to exist. Others were actuated by more patriotic sentiments and regarded the assassination of Cæsar as a benefit to the State, but failed to see its ultimate effect.

4. Antony, Octavius and Second Triumvirate.

Provinces were given to the leading conspirators by the Senate, Brutus receiving Cisalpine Gaul. Securing the popular favor Antony proceeded to take this province by force, and Cicero delivered against him a series of *Philippics*. Octavius, the grand-nephew of Cæsar, came to Rome and a second triumvirate was formed by Octavius, Antony and Lepidus to continue for five years. Many of the enemies of these three, among them Cicero, were put to death. At Philippi Brutus and Cassius were defeated by Antony and Octavius, and between the members of the triumvirate the world was divided. Then followed the infatuation of Antony by Cleopatra. War was declared against Egypt. The battle of Actium decided the issue in favor of Octavius, Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide, and Egypt became a Roman province.

We have given this brief sketch of the Roman Republic to distinguish the historical movement and the relation of the various periods to one another, to set forth the development of the Roman system and to see how she came to her world-wide dominion. Three things have plainly appeared: First, the processes by which the legislative system was constructed and the ruling idea of this state. Second, in becoming the mistress of the world by extensive conquests, the manner in which her governmental system was applied to the conquered territories. Third, how that avarice, luxury, jealousy, corruption, tyranny and internal strife robbed the Republic of

its power, rendered it incapable of ruling a world and bringing it to an end.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. Over how much territory did the Roman government extend at the close of the Punic Wars?
2. The Roman provincial system. Arnold's *Roman System of Provincial Administration*.
3. What were the chief measures proposed by the Gracchi?
4. What was the effect of conquest on the Roman Republic? See Pelham's *Outlines*, bk. iii, ch. iii.
5. How did the Jugurthine War express the corruption of the Roman Senate?
6. What was the general state of things at the close of the period of Marius and Sulla?
7. Marius and Sulla. Plutarch's *Lives*.
8. Cicero's statesmanship. Davidson's *Cicero and the Fall of the Roman Republic*. Trollope's *Life of Cicero*.
9. Cæsar's campaigns. *Cæsar's Commentaries*.
10. What precipitated the quarrel between Cæsar and Pompey?
11. Whose cause did Cæsar espouse in Egypt?
12. What was Cato's opposition to Cæsar, and how did it issue?
13. State some of the leading reform measures of Cæsar. Was he a greater statesman than a soldier?
14. The character of Cæsar. Froude's *Cæsar*. Plutarch's

Cæsar. Mommsen's *History*, Vol. V, 441-442, a famous passage.

15. Was Cæsar a greater statesman than Alexander?
16. Was there a common purpose among the three men of the second triumvirate?
17. What were the chief causes of the fall of the Republic?

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

During this period of over four centuries of this Roman-Hellenic monarchy Rome is to exercise her mighty power in the consummation of her mission and in bringing antiquity to its close. As a world-power "the Roman Empire extended from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, a distance of more than three thousand miles, and from the Danube and the English Channel—later from the friths of Scotland—to the cataracts of the Nile and the African desert. Its population was somewhere from eighty millions to one hundred and twenty millions. It was composed of the East and the West, a distinction that was not simply geographical, but included deeper characteristic differences. . . . Over all the Empire extended the system of Roman law, the rights and immunities of which belonged to Roman citizens everywhere." It was by this extension of Empire that Grecian culture became the common property of the nations, and thus the two great civilizations carried their joint influence to the world at large.

When Augustus became Emperor the people were ready for peace after all the devastations of civil warfare. All the

functions of authority were vested in him while there was an adherence to republican principles. The history of the Empire falls into four periods:

I. Expansion. From Augustus to Trajan.

This period extends from 27 B. C. to 117 A. D. It was when all the world was at peace in the reign of Augustus that Jesus Christ, the Prince of Peace, was born. The Messianic line having its origin in Seth and appearing from time to time in its representative heads such as Noah and Shem, and reaching its national distinction in Abraham and the Hebrew nation, and finally in the royal family of David, has at last issued in the long looked-for Prophet, the "Coming One," the seed of the woman of Gen. iii: 15. It was at the beginning of the Roman Empire that should occur the event destined to exert the most profound influence upon all future time. From the fall of Babylon and the restoration of the Jew from captivity, that race has been passing through the world. Empires disseminating the seeds of their religion, and preparing the nations by the circulation of the truths of the Old Testament for the advent of the Messiah.

Cyrus had placed this race back in their own land and gave them the opportunity of re-establishing their religious life, so that when Christ came to the world it was in the midst of those religious institutions, in the full force of their organization, that related to His own claims as the fulfillment of Jewish law and prophecy. During the reign of Tiberius and un-

der the proprætorship of Pontius Pilate He was crucified, but He had won many disciples and had for three years trained Twelve Apostles in the principles of His Kingdom, and finally leaving them, commissioned them to go into all the world, and by the truths and doctrines He had announced to bring the whole race into His Kingdom of love and grace.

The introduction of Christianity into the world was a new and mighty force to be brought into conflict with the Roman State, that was to pass through centuries of persecution, but in the end to rise triumphantly above Paganism and sit upon the Roman throne. The new religion grew and spread throughout the Empire. "The union of all the nations in the Roman Empire had lessened the mutual antipathy of peoples, melted down barriers of feeling as well as of intercourse, and weakened the pride of race. An indistinct sense of a common humanity had entered the breasts of men." This fact, together with the manner in which the Jews had carried their pure monotheism throughout the Empire and towards which there was a drift in religion, and the other important fact that "the old mythological religion was decaying, and traditional beliefs as to divine things were dissolving" and a general yearning for something to fill the void more substantial and satisfying, all prepared the way for the progress of Christianity. At no time in the history of the world did the necessary conditions exist favorable to the claims and establishment of such a religion as at this time. The race had been led from plane to plane, from the materialism of Orientalism to the intellectualism of Hellenism and Socialism of Rome.

Thus man had been exhibited by great historic processes and developments in these fundamental types of his complex constitution. But he is constitutionally religious as well as social or intellectual and no great state has solved for him this problem or satisfied the deepest yearnings of his spiritual nature. And after Rome there is no great state to bring to the task and such a task could not be undertaken or accomplished by any state. It remained for One to appear and introduce the Spiritual Kingdom as Rome did the Social Kingdom and Greece the Intellectual, to announce its universal principles, create a Church and commission it to present to humanity the solution of its last great problem in terms of the union of the human with the Divine order.

The missionary journeys of the Apostle Paul spread the Gospel and planted churches. He then set out for Macedonia. The wind wafts them over the waters, that five hundred years before had borne on their bosom the magnificent armada of Xerxes. These four humble men in the Trojan ship are to accomplish what the millions of Xerxes failed to accomplish—to conquer not only Greece, but all Europe. When falsely accused at Jerusalem it was only necessary for Paul, the Roman citizen, to say, "I appeal to Cæsar," to bring the principles of the new religion to the capital of the world.

It was under Nero in connection with the burning of Rome for which the Christians were most falsely accused that persecution of the new sect was instituted to be prosecuted for many decades under other emperors. Into the extermination of the new religion Rome threw all her mighty power.

Paganism drew upon every resource of cruelty and torture and without resistance the blood of the Christians flowed like water. It was the greatest conflict between power and principle the world has ever witnessed. Never was such an attempt made to stamp out by methods so cruel and relentless a helpless people, and never did any attempt meet with so ignominious a failure.

II. Prosperity from Hadrian to Aurelius.

This period extends from 117 to 180 A. D. Under Hadrian literature, art and architecture were given a great impulse. He chose as his successor Antoninus Pius, a man of worthy character. He extended the power of Rome in Britain and protected the Christians. Marcus Aurelius the Stoic was one of the best Emperors of Rome. "As his writings breathe a spirit which lacks little of being Christian, it is fair to suppose that his persecution of Christians was due to his misapprehension of their creed and character."

III. Decline. From Commodus to Diocletian.

This period extends from 180 to 305 A. D. Having reached the height of its prosperity under the last emperors the Empire now began to decline. This period began with Commodus, which was filled with crime and corruption, passed through the period of the Barrack Emperors, and ended with Diocletian. Under the last emperor the Empire became an absolute monarchy. By him the Empire was divided for gov-

ernmental purposes, giving the rule of the West to Maximian, while he took care of the East, but retaining the supreme authority.

IV. Last Days of the Empire.

1. Constantine the Great, 306-337 A. D.

Six rivals struggled for the throne. With the accession of Constantine a new Rome appeared. Paganism realized its inability to crush Christianity, and discovered in itself a decayed religion incapable of satisfying the religious life. The conversion of the emperor to Christianity brought the long contest to a close, and the battle of the Milvian Bridge settled the issue forever. Christianity now became the State religion, and at Nicæa (325 A. D.) was formulated the Nicene Creed, at the first General Council of the Church.

Constantine then undertook the reorganization of the government, making Byzantium (Constantinople) the center of government. The Empire was next separated into four great divisions, and with other subdivisions "Constantine's government formed a model, not only for Charlemagne and his successors, but for all the sovereigns of Modern Europe."

2. From Julian the Apostate to Theodosius the Great, 361-395 A. D.

Julian attempted the restoration of paganism by abolishing Christianity. The latter was restored by Jovian. During the reign of Valentinian and Valens occurred the invasion of the

Goths. Under Theodosius the Visigoths were conquered and made his allies. He reunited and ruled over as sole monarch the Eastern and Western Empires, which continued, however, only during his reign.

3. The Fall of the Western Empire.

Now began the invasion of the Visigoths (402 A. D.), the sacking of Rome, the capturing of Rome by the Vandals, and the invasion of Britain by the Saxons when the Roman troops were withdrawn to resist the Goths, Huns and Vandals.

The Empire that once had extended over the world was now reduced in extent to the first conquests of the Republic in Italy. From the time that Britain was surrendered to the barbarians (411 A. D.) it might be said that the Western Empire had passed away, but when Odoacer was granted permission by Zeno, the Eastern Emperor, to rule Italy as patrician (476 A. D.) the Western Empire had ceased to exist.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. The gaining of absolute power by Augustus. Tacitus, *Annals*, i, 2. Firth's *Augustus Cæsar*.

2. What was the character of Tiberius, and how was his reign characterized?

3. What were the moral conditions under which Nero was reared? What were some of the crimes that have made him notorious?

4. If Nero ordered the burning of Rome, what was his motive?

5. Christianity in the Roman Empire. Uhlhorn's *Conflict of Christianity with Paganism*, a work of unusual merit. Pliny's letter to Trajan and Trajan's reply.

6. Who were the Flavian Emperors? Note the special events of their reigns.

7. What was Trajan's distinction as a statesman?

8. Who are frequently called the "five good emperors?"

9. Marcus Aurelius' *Meditations*, Long's translation, exhibiting one of the noblest souls of antiquity.

10. By what means did the Barrack Emperors gain their elevation? How many were there?

11. What are the facts concerning Zenobia? See Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

12. In the division of the Empire by Diocletian how was it portioned and to whom?

13. By what achievements did Constantine become sole ruler of the Empire?

14. The Council of Nicæa. Stanley's *Lectures on the History of the Eastern Church*.

15. Constantinople and Constantine's government. Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. xvii.

16. How did the Goths come into Roman territory, and what led to their taking up arms against Rome?

ROMAN CIVILIZATION.

It is not necessary to our purpose to devote much space to this phase of our study. The chart gives an outline of the leading facts.

I. Government.

Our study of the historical movement has distinguished the Roman development and her governmental principles during the Republican and Imperial periods. Obedience to authority was the basis of Roman character. "This habit of obedience, this reverence for authority, was the one quality which, perhaps, had most to do with making Roman influence so mighty in the history of the world." This authority was centralized in the Roman State, hence the difference between the Roman in his respect for authority and the Greek whose government represented no such centralization. Obedience to the law did not relate simply to the subject; it was equally binding on rulers.

Republican government failed for want of a centralized form of government. Hence the establishment of the Empire by Augustus, following Cæsar's attempts at centralization, saved the Roman State. Says Merivale: "The establishment of the Roman Empire was, after all, the greatest political work that any human being ever wrought. The achievements of Alexander, of Cæsar, of Charlemagne, of Napoleon, are not to be compared with it for a moment."

2. *Roman Art.*

In Roman architecture there is little that is original. The three orders were borrowed from the Greeks who possessed æsthetic tendencies foreign to the Roman. The same was true of sculpture and painting. The conquest of Greece brought many of her artists to Rome whose influence was responsible for the finest Roman statuary. Under this influence arose a form of sculpture that was peculiarly Roman. "The practical tendency of the Roman character showed itself in this. Instead of creating ideal forms of beauty, the Roman sculptors produced portrait statues."

3. *Literature.*

What was said of originality in art is equally true of literature when compared with the Grecian. Their special service lay in the fact that they preserved the literary treasures of that more highly gifted nation. Cato, the father of Latin prose, "was the first thoroughly national author and was by far the most original writer Rome ever produced—the one man on whose vigorous mind no outside influence ever told." Cicero had every opportunity to become proficient in literary pursuits, and the use of them fitted him to take his high place, if not the highest in Roman literature. Of Julius Cæsar it is said that he "has probably made a deeper impression upon humanity than any other man that has ever lived." As an orator he was surpassed only by Cicero. He is best known to us as a historian, and in his *Commentaries* we see him at his

best. But few Roman writers escaped the influence of Greek thought and form. Lucretius was one of the exceptions in maintaining an independence, and refusing to be carried by this Grecian literary current. He "is the only Roman in whom the love of speculative truth prevails over every other feeling." Vergil has been called the most representative of the Roman poets, while Horace has been styled the most original. We give a passing notice to one more writer. Tacitus held military offices under three of the emperors. It is said of him that he had this great advantage over the historian Livy, that he helped to make history as well as relate it. He "ranks among the greatest historians of all time." So little is said of Jesus Christ in contemporaneous history, and so much emphasis has been laid upon the statement of Tacitus that we quote the passage:

"So, for the quieting of this rumor. . . . Nero judiciously charged with the crime, and punished with most studied severities, that class, hated for their general wickedness, whom the vulgar called *Christians*. The originator of that name was one Christ, who, in the reign of Tiberius, suffered death by sentence of the procurator, Pontius Pilate."

THE SOCIAL ORDER.

The student has already discovered what was the dominant fact of the Roman State and the great difference between the Roman and the Grecian. They sprang from the same ancestry, but in natural traits were distinctly unlike. We have

noted the lack of originality in the Roman in literary and artistic interests, and in their lack of ideality were imitators of the Greeks. "The Greeks had more genius; the Romans more stability. They had less delicacy of perception, but they had more sobriety of character and more endurance. They were a *disciplined* people; and in their capacity for discipline lay the secret of their supremacy in arms and of their ability to give law to the world. If they produced a much less number of great men than the Greeks, there was more widely diffused among Roman citizens a conscious dignity and strength. *Versatility* belonged to the Greek; *virility* to the Roman. Above all, the sense of right and of justice was stronger among the Romans. They had, in an eminent degree, the political instinct, the capacity for governing, and for building up a political system on a firm basis. The noblest product of the Latin mind is the *Roman law*, which is the foundation of almost all modern codes."

This statement distinguishes clearly the place of Rome in human history, his ruling idea and his contribution to the progress of the race. At the beginning of this study the question was what new development would be secured through the last universal empire that had not come by the other three. In the hands of Greece the human intellect and emotions came to exalted appreciations in the realm of the mental. A new life appeared in the awakening to life the deep faculties of the soul. But Rome came forward to call into life another being within—the Social being. Thus there has been a steady progressive unfolding of human character by these world em-

pires. The Roman idea was the race under Law, the supremacy of the State. The race is constituted with social impulses and necessities as well as with intellectual and æsthetic. It is a large side of our nature. It must learn the significance of law, justice, right, obedience, government and social unity and organization. Every fundamental movement of the Roman State contributed to the social evolution of man. She kept alive the creations of Greece and carried them forward with her own ideals. They kept the Roman, in the sternness and rigidity of his nature, which might easily have been perverted to the most insufferable cruelty, tempered and softened.

Just as the conquests of Alexander became the means of planting Grecian civilization in every soil, so the sweeping conquests of Rome brought the world under its ruling ideas. Her government was established everywhere. Obedience to the State was supreme. Respect for law was inculcated. Rome drew the nations together into a social union, and gathered about her feet as a father would gather his children, taught them the principles of the social order. From that time onward the world was destined to be a different world, a world living under organized social conditions with the fundamental elements of its legislative systems provided. Not only then did Rome call forth the new nature, it ministered to it in substantial social correlatives. "In this great empire was gathered up the sum total that remained of the religions, laws, customs, languages, letters, arts and sciences of all the nations of antiquity which had successively held sway or pre-

dominance. Under the system of Roman government and Roman law they were combined in one ordered community. It was out of the wreck of the ancient Roman Empire that the modern European nations were formed. Their likeness to one another, their bond of fellowship, is due to the heritage of laws, customs, letters, religion, which they have received in common from Rome."

In closing our studies in these universal States we have raised the question as to what was to follow, in what new way was human nature in its basic conditions to be enfolded and ministered to. In our discussion of Christianity in the Roman State we suggested an answer to that question which might, as heretofore, be raised at the close of this study. Just as Rome appeared in the world and moved on to strength and greatness while other great universal states were developing the human order, so Christianity, the next great universalizing power appeared in the midst of the mighty Roman Empire and laid hold of its very life to lift itself to dominance

within the state itself. And as Greece prepared the way for Rome, so the latter, in so many ways, prepared the way for the Spiritual Kingdom that no mere state could set up. Thus Christianity, appearing as it did, the exposition and correlative of the spiritual nature, is no more an accident in our historic development than were Greece and Rome.

The intelligent, thoughtful student will fully appreciate the peculiar importance that attaches to the history of these universal empires, and will see the sense in which they hold a significance in the development of the world-order as was not true of other states.

The Chart.

Note the first statement of the chart and its connection with the central fact. About this see how all the facts gather, and give it sufficient attention to be able to reproduce it without the aid of the chart.

Medieval Era From 476 to 1453 A.D.

*At the fall of the Roman Empire existed the elements that entered
into medieval and modern civilizations*
Charlemagne

I. From the Fall of Rome to Fall of the Empire of Charlemagne, 814.

1. Teutonic Nations. German conquest of Rome. German kingdoms.
2. The Dark Age. Christianity and conquests of Mohammedanism.
3. Eastern Roman Empire. Justinian, 527-565, and his Code. Heraclius, 610-641. Victories. Iconoclastic Controversy, 725-87.

Fall of Rome

4. Empire of Charlemagne, 752-814. New succession of Roman emperors.
- a. His government and administrative system.
- b. His Schools.
- c. His reign secured centralization of government.
- d. Literature, theological, philosophical, biographical.

Crusades

Causes
Persecution of Christian pilgrims.
First Crusade, 1096-99. Jerusalem taken.
Second Crusade, 1147-49. Expedition a failure.
Third Crusade, 1189-92. Under Frederick, Richard, Philip.
From the fourth to the ninth Crusade, 1193-1271. Childrears.
Influence of Saracenic civilization upon Europe through the Crusades.

II. From the Death of Charlemagne to the Fall of Constantinople, 814-1453.

France

1. Treaty of Verdun, 843. Charles to Capet, 875-987.
2. From Capet to the end of the Hundred Years War 987-1453. Early Capetians. Louis VI to Louis X.

Germany

1. Kingdom founded by Louis, 842-875.
2. From Charles the Fat to Henry, 882-936.
3. Struggle for Lothair, 855-896.

Fall of Constantinople

Holy Roman Empire

1. Saxon and Franconian emperors 936-1125.
2. From Interregnum to Frederick, 1254-1452

England

1. Prior to Norman Conquest, B.C. 55-1066.
2. Under Norman Kings, 1066-1154.
3. Under Angevin Kings, 1154-1327.
4. Hundred Years War, 1338-1453.

Other European States

1. Spain and Portugal, 1252-1458.
2. Growth of Swiss independence.
3. Denmark, Norway, Sweden-union.
4. Russia founded under Rurik, 862.
5. Turks take Constantinople, 1453.

MEDIEVAL ERA—FROM THE FALL OF ROME TO THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

It has been truly said that "Rome is the bridge which unites, while it separates, the ancient and the modern world." With the fall of the Roman Empire we enter a new era in the world's history. If we have gathered up the fundamental features of antiquity, have grasped the significance of the struggle towards unity, and the great general results of those early civilizations, we will then be intelligently prepared to take up and follow the historic thread through the next ten centuries.

The new age inherits all the attempts of antiquity in the interpretation of life; all of its moral, religious, political and economic ideas. Great elements of civilization lie at hand for it to construct into new systems. Greece has given it a wealth of art, literature and philosophy. Rome has created a great social order. The Greek was the man of thought, the Roman was the man of action. And, as we have seen, at the fall of Rome a new and mighty force, destined to be the next universal force though of a different order, has come through struggle and conflict to establishment—Christianity.

With all of these elements at hand it remains for the new age to fit the materials into a new structure. Here are the contributions of antiquity to future ages, contributions that required centuries to produce. What will the new age do with them? New conditions might be introduced changing the whole movement from the course we would expect to be nat

urally followed. But we must not forget the political state of things at the fall of Rome. What seems like utter disintegration is often a groping in the dark, the race picking its way amid its limitations but working slowly towards the light. The hands may drop treasures carried away from the past to recover them again and gather up the thread of the historic movement.

In such a transitional period it is for us to follow all the paths and see why they were taken and to what they lead. We shall see that what many times seemed abiding then was only provisional. It was the best they could do, but a real contribution to the better that was left for another age to discover.

Before us lies the spectacle of the appearance of new great states. How did they arise? What conditions and principles were operative in their origin? Into what relations did they come with other states that carried all a step forward in the general order? These are the questions with which we shall deal as we follow the course of Medieval events.

FROM THE FALL OF ROME TO THE FALL OF THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

The study of the Middle Ages introduces us to a new people and new conditions. We find ourselves in the midst of new

customs and institutions. The Medieval Era falls into two periods, the first of which extends from the beginning of the new era to the fall of Charlemagne's Empire. Five things claim our attention.

I. The Teutonic Kingdoms.

In the medieval era two striking facts come to view. First the modification of the old society by the commingling of the Germanic peoples, and the influence of Roman civilization upon these nations. Second, the Christian Church surviving the Empire, the great social bond directing not only the religious life but guiding in important respects the secular.

The fall of the Roman Empire was brought about, not suddenly, but by a gradual process. The army was recruited from the barbarians who learned from the Romans the art of war and at the same time were strengthened by training in military discipline. Whole settlements of these tribes became established within the empire, and at times bartered their military service for territory. Under such training and discipline, and developed by these Roman opportunities, many of the most efficient attained to high places in the army, and consequently exercised their influence and power in respect to the rulers. Another important fact tending to the same general result is "that most of the Germanic tribes were converts to Christianity before they made their attacks and subverted the throne of the Cæsars. In fine, there was a long preparation for the great onset of the barbarian peoples in the fifth century." It

was this ability on the part of the German, possessed of strong intellectual and moral characteristics, to set aside his religion and adopt a new one, and to avail himself of the elements of civilization developed by Rome that fitted him to become the conqueror of this people.

On the other hand, we must look to the state of things at the heart of the Empire for the cause of its fall. If Rome had not come to a state of decay she would not have fallen under the hand of the barbarian. It was the internal condition and not these external circumstances that determined the fall of the Empire. Civil war had greatly reduced the population of Italy and it was a difficult thing to maintain a strong army. Luxury had sapped the vitality of the people. Baths and feasts and other enervating conditions had rendered this people once so strong and virile weak and effeminate. Instead of keeping up their robust militia their wealth enabled them to hire foreigners to do their fighting. The Germans were the best soldiers, and in fighting Rome's battles came to commanding positions in the Roman army. With such decaying and disintegrating conditions sapping the vitality of the people, and a strong warlike race coming into possession of the elements of strength that constituted the power of the State, it is easy to understand how the Empire came to ruin by a people to whom war and conquest was a delight.

Six kingdoms were founded by the Germans.

1. The kingdom of the Ostrogoths, having Ravenna for its capital. This kingdom came to an end in 553 when Justinian determined to seize Italy and Africa.

2. The kingdom of the Visigoths. These people occupied territory in Gaul from which they were expelled by the Franks in 507 A. D., and the kingdom was finally overthrown by the Saracens in 711 A. D.

3. The kingdom of the Burgundians. They established their kingdom on the Rhone, and in 534 A. D., were conquered by the Franks.

4. The kingdom of the Lombards. They captured the city of Pavia in Italy, and in 568 A. D., had possession of almost the entire peninsula, which was held under their dominion for over two hundred years. In 774 A. D., they were subdued by Charles the Great.

5. The kingdom of the Anglo-Saxons. After the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain to defend Rome against her foes the island was taken by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes. In 827 A. D., Egbert, King of Wessex, brought all under his rule.

6. The kingdom of the Franks. This was the greatest of the German kingdoms. The Merovingian Dynasty was founded by Meroveus, 451 A. D., which continued for 300 years. It was overthrown 751 A. D., and the Carolingian dynasty was established.

II. Christianity and the Church.

In our study of Rome we gave some attention to the conditions under which Christianity appeared. We noted the occasion of the persecution of the Christians in the reign of Nero, and its continuance and the triumph at last of the new

religion over paganism. Rome was disposed to be tolerant towards other religions that found their way into the Empire. Between these religions and Christianity, however, there was an essential difference. The latter affected the relation of the subject to the State in certain particulars. It taught that to follow the forms and indulge the liberties of the Roman religion was a sin, and that the Emperor and State were not supreme. But the Roman religion was a national system and an essential part of the State, and it was by reverence for the emperor that he had gained such influence over his subjects. Hence this attitude to the state religion and the tendency to alter the distinction of the emperor brought about the persecution of the Christians and the attempt to exterminate their religion following the outburst of persecution and cruelty in the first instance under Nero. The strong hold that Christianity was gaining throughout the Empire was bound to seriously affect the stability of Rome when we consider her religious position and principles. For Christianity to become supreme Rome could not remain the same Rome. In a comparatively brief time after the resurrection of Christ and the dispersion of His disciples the Gospel was heralded everywhere. Through the preaching of Paul and others, churches were being established and Christian doctrines widely diffused. Christians were holding offices of the State and were soldiers in the ranks. As one of the Roman writers declared they were filling the Empire and its official positions. Rome realized her danger and prosecuted under different emperors the work of extermination.

We have already seen the futility of the attempts to uproot Christianity, and how at last after decades of patient suffering drawing against Rome no weapon but the truths of their system, paganism was vanquished, the Emperor became a Christian and Christianity became supreme in the State.

We also have noted that in the breaking up of the Empire, Christianity not only survived, but that the Church became the great social bond of union directing the temporal as well as religious interests. Under this influence the Germans had come. Christendom arose, a single homogeneous society of peoples. "Power passed from the Empire to the Church. The Church was strong in its moral force. Its bishops commanded the respects of the barbarians. They were moral and social leaders. In the period of darkness and of tempest, the voices of the Christian clergy were heard in accents of fearless rebuke and of tender consolation. In the cities of Italy and Gaul, the bishops, at the call of the people, informally took the first place in civil affairs. The barbarians were awed by the kingdom of righteousness, which, without exerting force, opposed to force and passion an undaunted front. They could not avoid feeling in some measure the softening and restraining influence of Christian teaching, and learning the lessons of the cross. Socially, the Church, as such, was always on the side of peace, on the side of industry, on the side of purity, on the side of liberty for the slave, and protection for the oppressed. The monasteries were the only keepers of literary traditions; they were great agricultural colonies, clearing the wastes, and setting the example of improvement. They were

the only seats of human labor which could hope to be spared in those lands of perpetual war."

In the middle of the seventh century an alliance was established with the papacy by Pippin, the Frankish king, in which the pope attained the temporal sovereignty.

It was in the fourth century that the Christian Church was deluged with corruption, and was the occasion of the establishment of Monasticism by which many sought seclusion for their spiritual development. This subject is fully discussed in our next study, *Institutions of the Middle Ages*.

What is of importance to us at this point of the historical movement is to grasp the significance of Christianity and the Church emerging from the wreck of the Empire and constituting a mighty force in the shaping of events.

III. The Eastern Roman Empire.

It will be remembered that Constantine established his capital in Constantinople, thus creating the Eastern Empire. He had considered both Alexandria and Antioch, but they were not centrally located. He was the first Christian emperor and we can readily see the great importance that attaches to this shifting of his capital, and how his reign constitutes a turning point in the religious life of Europe.

This empire comprised, under Arcadius (395-408 A.D.), Egypt, Northern Africa, Asia between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace and Illyria. A deep interest in theological questions occupied the eastern

mind. In these the Grecian speculative tendency reveled. "Such questions as were raised by Nestorius respecting the two natures of the Saviour were debated even in the shops and the markets. The court meddled actively in these heated controversies, and was swayed to one party or the other by the theologians whom, for the time, it took into its favor. The emperors assumed the high prerogative of personally deciding in doctrinal disputes, and of dictating opinions to the clergy, who gradually lost their independence and became abjectly subservient to the imperial will."

1. Justinian and his code.

A new dynasty began with Justin I. His nephew, Justinian, became his successor (527-565), who was under the dominating influence of his wife. Following the time of Constantine this reign was the most brilliant period in Byzantine history. "Under his despotic rule the last vestiges of republican administration were obliterated."

His great service lay in his code of laws. Great codes had already preceded this, and codification of Roman laws was a familiar idea. There were the Twelve Tables, the Gregorian Code and Theodosian Code. Regarding the influence of the Justinian Code Adams remarks: "This law is still a part of the living and actual law of many modern nations. Owing to the French and Spanish colonial occupation, it became the law of a part of the territory now within the United States and forms the actual law of Louisiana in the code of 1824,

which is English in language but Roman in law and technical expression. In consequence of its permanence in the Eastern Empire, this law was taken up by the Mohammedan states and became the most important source of their law, contributing, it is asserted, far more than the Koran to the legal system which now rules throughout the Mohammedan world." It forms the principal basis of law, not only with most of the European nations, but also Louisiana and the South American states of Spanish origin, and is regularly taught in the law schools of leading European states and of America.

2. Heraclius, 610-641.

Following the death of Justinian for one hundred and fifty years the Byzantine court was steeped in crime and corruption, the conditions being improved only during the reign of Heraclius. In a series of campaigns he measured swords with Chosroes, King of Persia. These began in 622 A.D., and continued until 627. In the last conflict Heraclius met the Persian army not far from Arbela. In this historic spot, eight hundred and fifty years before, Persia was overthrown by Alexander, and the victory of Heraclius was no less decisive. "With the reign of Heraclius, the transient prosperity of the Greek Empire comes to an end. It was exhausted even by its victories. Overwhelmed with taxation, it was ruined in its trade and industry. Despotism in the rulers, sensuality and baseness in rulers and subjects undermined public and private virtue. In addition to other enemies on every side, it was

attacked by the Arabians, and Heraclius lived to see the loss of Syria and of Egypt and the capture of Alexandria by these new assailants."

IV. Mohammedanism and Its Conquests.

In the midst of this early period of the Medieval Era was born (572) one from whom should emanate a new order and influence destined to alter the course of history, and sustain an unusual position in the political situation of the present time.

At the time of the birth of Mohammed, the religion of the Arabs had degraded into idolatry and indifference. Retiring to the desert or mountain for meditation he received a vision, we are told, from the Archangel Gabriel, who declared him to be the Prophet of God and founder of a new religion. The revelations which he said were committed to him are to be found in the Koran, the Mohammedan Bible, which contains elements of Judaism, Christianity and the Arabic religion. This compilation consisting of 114 chapters is utterly devoid of any systematic arrangement. "It has neither beginning, middle nor end," says Alzog, "it is a gathering of irregular scraps, indiscriminately put together."

It is a monotheistic system opposing both the polytheism of the Greeks and Romans and the Christian doctrine of the Trinity.

The plan of Mohammed after fleeing from Mecca was to unite the Arab tribes, and project a holy war by which

idolaters would be conquered and crushed. These plans were put into operation, and in the midst of his victories he died in 632. The successors of the Prophet continued these conquests and in twenty-one years had extended the rule of Islam over a territory equal to that of the Roman Empire. Their chief opponents were the Eastern Empire and Persia. From the former they snatched the sections in which Grecian civilization had not been deeply rooted, and conquered Persia. Nothing less than the conquest of the whole world and its conversion into a vast Moslem Empire was the design of Mohammedanism, and at the point of the sword it offered the Koran or death. "It was part of the Moslem plan that a Mohammedan tide rolling westward from Constantinople and one moving eastward from France should meet in mid-Europe. To German genius and valor we are indebted for checking both of these tides and saving Central and Western Europe from the dominance of Oriental civilization." At Tours (732 A. D.) the Saracen leader, fresh from his conquest of Spain, met the German forces. Never before had they met such resistance as was now opposed to them by the sturdy Germans. The fleeing from the field of battle of the Moslems was a decisive moment in human history. "That one autumn afternoon made Christianity forever triumphant in Europe, and Charles Martel, the German king, became at once the hero of Christian civilization." For seven centuries to come the Saracens remained in Spain.

To these Saracenic conquests the world owes much in matters of civilization. They gathered the culture of the nations

and added their own original investigations in astronomy, chemistry and mathematics. "But the great debt which the world owes to Mohammedan culture is for its preservation, through the Dark Age, of the scientific works of Aristotle and other Greek authors. Thus, learning first returned to Europe through the Arabian schools in Spain."

There have been but three great missionary religions—Judaism, Christianity and Mohammedanism. The Jew is the Child of Abraham through Jacob, the Saracen is the child of Abraham through Ishmael, and Christianity is the evolution of Judaism.

V. The Empire of Charlemagne.

We have noticed that the kingdom of the Franks was the greatest among the Teutonic nations. In 751 A. D., the Merovingian dynasty was overthrown and the Carolingian dynasty established. The transfer of the Roman Empire of the West to the dominion of the Franks was the great event of the eighth century. It marks a new epoch in European history. The name Carolingian was derived from Charles Martel, the hero of the Battle of Tours, the Italian form of Charles being Carlo. By his achievements in uniting the Franks and driving back the Saracens, and by Pippin's success in the Italian wars inspiring the confidence of the West, the way was prepared for the establishment of a great empire under Charlemagne. For more than a thousand years Europe was to feel the influence of his methods of government and

his religious and educational ideas. He stands in the front rank of conquerors and monarchs.

In the eighth century Europe possessed but a few cities, and these were small. The Western Empire was in the hands of the Church, and the Eastern had restrained the Oriental nations from westward aggressions. The few roads were infested with robbers, and canals as a means of transportation did not exist. These were the conditions in Europe when Charlemagne began his reign. He was the founder of modern Europe, and his religious and political achievements constitute his reign one of the most important in European history. Thus we see the significant bearing of this century upon modern times.

In 771, at the death of Carloman, when Charlemagne became sole ruler, his kingdom included all of Gaul and the western part of Germany. In 800 his dominion included besides Germany practically all the territory once embraced in the Western Roman Empire.

Respecting Charlemagne's place in history the following statement is an excellent condensation of the facts: "The reign of Charles the Great was like a brilliant meteor flashing through the darkness of the Middle Ages. Resplendent while it lasted, its fall was succeeded by profound gloom. But some of his achievements were permanent contributions to civilization. He conquered the Saxons and brought them under the influence of Christianity. The schools he established became centers of learning in an age of general ignorance. Although his Empire fell to pieces, some of the best features of his

government remained. The strong centralization of government which he maintained was the ideal of good government in Europe for many centuries. His revival of the Empire rendered possible its second revival on a somewhat different basis by the kings of Germany, and laid the foundation for that ideal structure, the Holy Roman Empire. In his reign, the German and Roman elements of Europe were fused into a common whole. In language, law and race-feeling, a new people sprang up, combining what was best in German vigor and Roman culture. With the end of Charlemagne's reign begins a process which runs through the second half of the Middle Ages—the formation of the modern nations which we call Christendom."

Questions and Topics for Study.

We commend to the student Emerton's *Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages*. Hodgkin's *Italy and Her Invaders*, Vols. I and II. On the Roman Church, Fisher's *Beginnings of Christianity*, 520-533. Irving's *Mahomet and His Successors*. Freeman's *History and Conquests of the Saracens*. On the Eastern Empire, Bury's *Later Empire*. Sergeant's *The Franks*.

1. What was the religion of the early Germans?
2. Of what kingdom was Theodoric king?
3. By whom and when did the kingdom of the Ostrogoths come to an end?
4. What kingdom brought nearly all other German tribes under its rule?

5. What are the facts of Augustine's mission to the Anglo-Saxons and conversion of Ethelbert?

6. What were the labors of St. Patrick in Ireland?

7. What did St. Boniface do for Christianity in Germany?

8. What relations existed between the Frankish king Pippin and the pope?

9. What was the state of the Eastern Empire under Arcadius?

10. Who rendered the greater service to the Empire, Justinian or Heraclius?

11. What was the Iconoclastic Controversy, and how did it end?

12. Mohammed. Carlyle's *Essay in Heroes and Hero-Worship*.

13. Why was Mohammed compelled to flee from Mecca?

14. What were the leading doctrines of this system?

15. Trace the course of Mohammedan conquests to the Battle of Tours.

16. What was the great contribution of the Saracens to civilization?

17. What was the state of the Frankish kingdom when Charlemagne came to the throne?

18. Give a Chronological outline of the conquests of Charles.

19. What were some of the features of his administrative system?

20. What did he do for education by his school system?

21. Charlemagne. Davis' *Charlemagne* (Heroes of the Nations). Einhard's *Life of Charlemagne*.

FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE TO THE FALL OF
CONSTANTINOPLE.

Some authorities consider the Medieval Era to begin with the breaking up of the Empire of Charlemagne, others with the fall of the Western Empire. The latter is the view of the present writer.

Before continuing our study of this period it will be well for us to note several important particulars. The first is the difference between Ancient and Medieval history. While the ancient deals with the East and also European States, the other two periods deal almost entirely with the white races of Western Europe. Again, in the ancient period but one or two nations claimed attention at a time, but when we come to the Middle Ages the development is exceedingly complex, and many states and their interrelations must be considered contemporaneously.

At every step in these studies it has been one of our chief aims to keep before the student those dominant influences and conditions that entered into the historic movement. "The reader of history of the Middle Ages will fail to grasp its significance unless he is able to trace through this period of transition those dominant influences which were constantly leading the nations of Europe to greater political and religious liberty." Thus we have seen the influence of the Christian Church to the death of Charlemagne. We have also noted how the Eastern Empire kept alive the culture of the past, and checked Mohammedanism, and how "it converted to

Christianity and civilized the inhabitants of eastern Europe."

In our following study we take up the institutions of the Middle Ages. But in line with the thought before us we note the obstacles to the progress of the period, especially that of feudalism. The weakness in central government gave rise to this system. When Charlemagne's Empire fell into dissolution no sovereign was strong enough to properly protect his weak subjects, hence the feudal alliances in which the weak combined with the strong for their protection. But while feudalism was a hindrance to civilization we shall see in what manner "it came into existence to fill a need, and around it gathered those influences and institutions whose traces are still seen in continental Europe."

Transitional periods are especially significant, and the great importance of the Medieval Era must not be overlooked. The infusion into Roman institutions of Teutonic strength and virility brought about a stronger race by the union of great elements. We have observed how invasions were calculated to check progress, but we must also see how in the end new elements were introduced. A significant example is England and the fusion of elements in this state. "Before the foundations of modern Europe could be laid, another people must add something of their vigor and free life, and following the breaking up of Charlemagne's Empire came the invasion of the Northmen. Finally when these people had received some of the culture of the Germans and Franks, they invaded England, mingled with the Anglo-Saxons and laid the foundation of that great nation from which America sprang."

All along, through periods of decline and development, the Medieval Era has contributed to our modern life and institutions. Declensions were followed by purer and stronger conditions. During this time were established great institutions of learning whose influence is profoundly operative to-day. Representative government that occupies such a place in the political ideals of the present time had its beginning in this period. From these brief observations will be clearly seen the importance of carefully grasping the particulars of one era since the conditions established and principles formulated are to be carried over to the next, and the necessity of relating contemporaneous events for a true historic picture.

Our last study closed with the Empire of Charlemagne and a statement of his place in history. We add to that the statement of Oman: "With him starts the idea of the Holy Roman Empire, which affected so deeply the whole secular and religious life of the Middle Ages. The Frankish kingship, a mere rule of force, had no exalted and spiritual meaning; the new empire represented a close and conscious union of Church and State for the advantage of both."

I. Dissolution of the Empire of Charlemagne.

We trace this period from the point civilization had reached under Charles the Great to the darkest hour of this great era, when it seemed that the great structure that had been reared was to fall to ruin under the weakness of barbarism, never to be recovered. The following questions will guide the student in studying the facts of this period.

Questions.

1. By whom was Charlemagne succeeded? Was he capable of continuing his father's policy? What division did he make of his realm between his three sons?
2. What precipitated the war between Louis and his sons?
3. Following the death of Louis the question was whether the Empire should remain a unit. What connection did the war between the brothers have with this, and what was the issue?
4. What was the Treaty of Verdun, and how does it mark the end of the Empire?
5. Who were the Vikings, and what resulted from their invasions?
6. What caused the civil war between Louis and Charles, and what disintegrations followed?

II. France.

The dissolution of the Empire gave rise to new states. It is therefore a very important matter at this point to note the conditions under which new nations appeared, and how from the dark period through which we have just passed in our study another is forming, bringing new light and hope.

It was during this period that the principles of the present systems of government of France and England were established. The fundamental difference between these systems will appear when we have surveyed the English movements of this period. As the present system of representative gov-

ernment dates from the Magna Charta, so we date "from the rule of the Capetians, the development of that absolutism which dominated the European nations until modern times."

We trace, by the following questions, the history of France from its beginning to the close of the Hundred Years' War, which brings us to the close of the Middle Ages.

Questions.

The student will find Adams' *Growth of the French Nation*, and Thatcher and Schwill's *Europe in the Middle Age* very helpful.

1. Who was the first king of France?
 2. Trace the history from the siege of Paris to the settlement of Normandy. What people settled in great numbers in this territory, and how did they affect the nation?
 3. What caused the civil wars in the reign of Charles the Simple?
 4. When did the House of Capet take its rise? Note that the crowning of Hugh Capet may be considered as the real beginning of France as a nation.
 5. What was the state of France when Capet came to the throne, and over what peoples was he crowned king?
 6. During the early Capetians, from 987 to 1108, what was the general progress of the nation?
 7. The great Capetians from Louis VI to Louis X. What is the length of this period?
- What was the strength of feudalism at the beginning of this period?

8. What were the general conditions from Louis VI to Louis VIII?

9. What were the beneficent measures of Louis VIII?

10. State the condition of France at the end of the Capetian House? What was the French system of government?

11. A new period in France begins with Philip VI, a period of disasters that threatened the overthrow of the Sovereignty.

What was the cause of the Hundred Years' War?

In what great battles were the English victorious?

What was the condition of things when Joan of Arc aroused the national consciousness, and what did it effect?

How did the war end for France?

Through what reigns did the war extend?

III. Germany.

To get at the beginnings of Germany we go back to the successor of Charlemagne and recall the struggles of his sons. We trace the history of this State from 855 to 936, and the struggle between France and Germany for Lothair, the Middle Kingdom.

Questions.

1. Which son of Louis the Pious was the founder of the German kingdom? What did his reign accomplish?
2. Of what other nation was Charles the Fat the sovereign? Why did he abdicate his throne?
3. When was the kingship made elective? With what

system was Conrad brought into conflict, and what did he advise the Germans to do after his death?

4. What was the distinction of Henry I?

5. The struggle for Lothair. This kingdom at the death of Lothair was divided into three parts, which precipitated civil war. Between France and Germany began the struggle for this kingdom, that with varying results was to continue for more than a thousand years.

With what kings did this struggle begin, and how did it come to arise?

6. What actions of Charles the Fat helped to bring about the anti-Frankish sentiment in Italy?

IV. *The Holy Roman Empire.*

This empire extended over a period of 517 years, from 936 to 1453. Otto, the son of Henry I, succeeded his father to the throne of Germany and became the founder of the Holy Roman Empire. Two general facts should be noted in connection with the present study. First, the part of feudalism as the active cause in much of the conflict of this period. Second, the influence of the Church, and that it was best and most lasting "when its activities were confined to the purpose for which it was organized."

Questions.

We commend to the student *The Empire and the Papacy*, by Tout. Bryce's *Holy Roman Empire* (ch. vi) on the In-

vestiture Contest. On Otto the Great, Henderson's *Germany in the Middle Ages*, 134-138, and on Henry III, 174-176. *History of All Nations*, Vols. VIII, IX, X.

1. The reigns of Otto and his successors.

When was Otto made emperor? What was the difference between his empire and that of Constantine and Charlemagne?

What were his successes and his ambition for the Germans?

What was the state of the Empire under Otto's successors?

2. The Franconian Emperors.

How long was this period?

What did Conrad II do for the establishment of royal authority?

How did Henry III become the most powerful of German kings? What connection existed between the papacy and Empire?

What was the trouble between Henry IV and Pope Gregory, and how did it bring on civil war? How was the contest carried on by Henry V, and what settlement was secured by the Concordat of Worms?

Who was the founder of the Hohenstaufen House?

What did Frederick I do for the Empire?

Note the distinction of Pope Innocent III in regard to his temporal power, his religious attitude and interest in the Crusades.

What did Frederick II do for the administrative system,

and what interest did he take in educational matters and the Crusades? Note the extension of German influence over the North and East during this century.

3. The period from 1254 to 1453.

This has been called "a period of many dynasties."

What was the Great Interregnum, and how long did it extend?

By whom was the Imperial House of Austria founded, and what was his service in subduing the barons?

When and by whom was the House of Luxemburg founded?

What significance attached to the famous "Golden Bull" of Charles IV?

In whose reign was the House of Hohenzollern founded? What was the great policy of expansion of this House?

Note how the states of Germany and Italy became fragmentary, destroying all hope of national unity, and how the Empire lost its distinction.

Who was the last emperor to be crowned at Rome, and when?

V. England.

To the American student the history of England must be of special interest because of her vital relation to America and its institutions. But the history and progress of England is but a part of the history and progress of mankind. Again we

are to understand her movements in connection with the European States. The causes for many events in English history are to be found elsewhere. It is of the first importance that we appreciate the influence of the various peoples that constituted the early life of this nation in shaping its course. English history to the close of the Medieval Era falls into two sections or periods, the first ending with the Norman conquest in 1066 A.D., and the second, from the Norman conquest to the end of the Hundred Year's War, 1453.

When it is said that the battle of Hastings is one of the decisive battles of the world, it means that the Norman conquest of England was, through this state, invested with a world-wide interest as marking a great turning point in the world's history. Following this event great steps are taken in the development of English liberties, determining much in her political history constantly enlarging to the point of the democracy which to-day she represents. Thus the Magna Charta was one of the great events of the world in its influence upon English institutions and the effect of these upon the civilization of the world. The seed that was sown in 1215 when King John at Runnymede signed the Great Charter not only bore fruit in the continued development and establishment of English liberties, but appeared and was operative in the Declaration of Independence and the Emancipation Proclamation. England formed the instrument that under King George was to vindicate the position of her American colonies.

In English history we should see a remarkable combination of forces shaping the life and policies of a people whose

influence upon the civilization of the world is greater than that of any modern state.

Questions.

The following works may be consulted with great profit: Green's *Short History of the English People* is unusually valuable. Kendall's *Source-Book of English History*. For the spirit of the times read Marlowe's *Edward II*, Shakespeare's *King John*, Tennyson's *Harold*. Scott's *Ivanhoe* and *The Talisman*. Miss Yonge's *Lances at Lynwood* for the time of Edward III.

1. The Roman Period.

What is the area of the British Isles?

When did Cæsar invade Britain, and what is the date of the Roman occupation?

How long was Britain under Roman control, and what benefits accrued to these Isles?

2. The Anglo-Saxon Period.

When did the Northmen invade Britain?

What series of events culminated with the rule of Egbert and the establishment of Britain as England?

Who was the greatest of England's earliest kings? With what people was he brought into conflict, and what progress did learning and Christianity make during his rule?

How were the *shires* constituted in Anglo-Saxon government?

3. The Norman Period.

From what year does the Norman conquest date?

What were the administrative system and policies of William?

What was William's *Domesday Book*?

What three Norman kings succeeded William, and what contest was waged with the feudal barons?

What did the Charter of Henry I guarantee?

4. The Angevin Kings.

Henry II was one of the greatest of English kings. In what respects? What trouble arose between him and Becket?

What was the leading interest of the reign of Richard I?

King John has been called the most contemptible of the English kings. What in his reign justifies that statement? What was his personal interest in the Magna Charta?

In whose reign was the first House of Commons called and in what year?

What two Scottish patriots figured in the reigns of the first two Edwards, and to what end?

5. The Hundred Years' War.

Edward III came to the throne at the age of fourteen. The question upon which this war turned was whether France and Scotland should be controlled by the king of England.

When did Edward open active hostilities?

Through what reigns did this war continue? How did it issue as to English control?

In what condition did it leave France as to its unification? As to its material prosperity?

As judged by this extended war, which was the better governed country?

6. General development.

(a) In whose reign did Tyler's Rebellion occur, what precipitated it and what in English affairs does it signify?

In what way was Wyclif, the great preacher, involved in this Rebellion?

(b) What governmental changes took place during the Hundred Years' War? With reference to Parliamentary judgment in all matters? The separation of the House of Commons?

(c) What changes were brought about in the feudal system, and how was the condition of the peasant class bettered?

(d) Literature.

Who wrote Piers Plowman, and what influence did it have upon the time?

Who was the most famous poet of this period, what was his great poem and what did he do for the English language?

VI. Other European States.

While Germany, France and England centralize the history of the Medieval Era in the great developments we have already considered, other States demand some notice.

1. Spain.

"The five strong Christian kingdoms which rose on the ruins of the Saracen civilization developed one of the most characteristic types of Medieval Christianity."

(a) What are these five kingdoms?

(b) What was the distinction of Alfonso the Wise, Pedro III, James II and Alfonso V?

2. Portugal.

When did interest in geographical discovery begin, what was the object and what was accomplished during this era?

3. Switzerland.

Peculiar interest has always been awakened in this liberty-loving people.

(a) What was Switzerland prior to the time of Charlemagne?

(b) When did the struggle for independence begin, and when did the Swiss Confederacy receive imperial recognition?

(c) What was the result of the civil war of 1436?

4. Scandinavia.

(a) What two Danish rulers were associated with English history?

(b) When was Christianity established in Norway and Sweden?

(c) How did Norway distinguish herself during the latter half of the thirteenth century?

(d) When and by whom were Norway, Sweden and Denmark united?

5. Russia.

(a) The early Slavic settlements.

(b) Whom did the early settlers invite to be their king, and what was the progress of the Empire under his successors? What demands were made upon Constantinople in 907?

(c) In the eleventh century their civilization was on a plane with that of Western Europe. By what invasions was it destroyed in the thirteenth century, thus delaying her development for some centuries?

6. The Ottoman Empire.

(a) When did the Turks establish the foundations of an empire in the western part of Asia Minor?

(b) What progress had they made by the middle of the fourteenth century?

(c) When did they capture Constantinople and bring the Byzantine Empire to an end?

The Crusades.

While the Mohammedan persecution of Christian pilgrims in Palestine was an important cause, it would be a mistake to

suppose that it was the only cause of the Crusades. It may not be far from the truth to say that it was the occasion for the vigorous life of the time to find an expression in chivalry and activity, and, of course, religious sentiment. "The Crusades were a new chapter in the long warfare of Christendom with Mohammedanism. In the Middle Ages there were two worlds utterly distinct—that of the Gospel and that of the Koran. In Europe, with the exception of Spain, the Gospel had sway; from the Pyrenees to the mouths of the Ganges, the Koran. The border contests between the two hostile parties on the eastern and western frontiers of Christendom were now to give place to conflict on a larger scale during centuries of invasion and war." The Crusades awakened a profound enthusiasm in all classes, yearning for a broader theater of action, their energies cramped by their narrow confines in the overcrowded condition of Europe. Princes and nobles entered into this enthusiasm, both to crush the Mohammedan and to distinguish themselves in military action.

Questions.

Besides the works on this general period already commended we would suggest *The Crusades* by Archer and Kingsford (Story of the Nations). Chs. viii and xiii of Tout's *The Empire and the Papacy*. *Letters of the Crusaders*, Pennsylvania Reprints, I, 4.

1. Who was the prime author of the first Crusade, and what inducements were offered to enlist in it? How did it result?

2. Who were the principal leaders of the second Crusade, how large a force entered in the expedition and what did it effect?

3. Between the second and third Crusades what were Saladin's achievements in Jerusalem? Who were the leaders of this expedition and how did it issue?

4. Why did the fourth Crusade never reach the Holy Land?

5. What were the remarkable features of the Children's Crusade?

6. What were the general results of the remaining Crusades ending in 1271?

Was Palestine released from Turkish oppression?

The moral, political, commercial and intellectual results of the Crusades were far-reaching. "It is hard to overestimate the effect which the Crusades had upon the intellectual life of Europe. The Saracens, who had obtained their civilization from the Greeks, had made advances in medical knowledge, general science, art and architecture far beyond anything accomplished in Europe. These things, added to the sum total

of knowledge, suggested to the Christians that there was much more to learn and that even the despised infidel Turk could teach them many things. Thus they gained a broader outlook upon the world and were ready for that intellectual awakening which reached its highest development in the sixteenth century."

The Chart.

By the means of the chart the leading facts can be gathered up and the entire period easily reviewed. From the study of this historic section we can see how the great elements of civilization were brought to hand by antiquity. Note how the chart falls into three general sections. In the second section relate the events of the various states contemporaneously. Note the year in which they all issue, the close of this period. Relate the periods of the various crusades with the existing conditions in each State, and thus as much as possible grasp these events in their chronological unity.

Medieval Institutions and Renaissance

Chivalry

Asceticism

Feudalism

1. A social system based on land ownership.
2. Origin, development, influence.
3. Relation of vassal to his lord. The feudal family.
4. Declined under higher economic, religious and political civilization.

Dawn of

Renaissance

Monasticism

1. Origin in Egypt and Greece.
2. Vows of the hermit.
3. Stylites. Their peculiarities.
4. Exaggerated notions, practices.
1. Eastern.
2. Western. Benedictines, founded by Benedict. House of Cluny. Influence upon European history.
3. Mendicant Orders. Franciscans, Dominicans.
4. Beneficent service of Monasticism.

Modern Era

Learning

Art

Literature

Scholasticism

The Schoolmen. Scotus, Lanfranc, Abelard, Aquinas. To conform faith to reason.

New Learning in Italy

Three Periods.

Classical learning, Study of Greek, Criticism.

The Medici Family.

New Learning in England

Colet, Erasmus, Moore.

In France

Budaeus, Calvin.

In Germany

Luther, Melancthon.

Italian Renaissance

1. Architecture. Brunelleschi, Bramante, Palladio.
2. Sculpture. Ghiberti, Donatello, Robbia, Michelangelo architect, sculptor, painter.
3. Painting. Fra Angelico, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Correggio, Raphael prince of painters.

German Renaissance

Durer, Holbein.

The Netherlands

Rubens, Rembrandt.

Spanish Renaissance

Velasquez, Murillo.

Revival in Italy, 1265-1500.

Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Machiavelli, Ariosto.

France, 1485-1600.

Rabelais, Montaigne type of the spirit of scepticism. The Pleiade. Compact of 7 writers to improve the French tongue.

Spain, 1411-1600.

Juan de Mena enriched the language. Mendoza, historian and poet. Cervantes. Lope de Vega, wrote 1500 plays.

MEDIEVAL INSTITUTIONS AND THE RENAISSANCE

In the preceding study we traced the historical development from the Fall of Rome to the Fall of Constantinople. We saw both how the elements of civilization existing in 476 A. D. operated throughout the following centuries, the rise and fall of empires, and European conditions to 1453.

In our study of the ancient world emphasis was laid upon the relation of the individual to the State. Modern history will show us the reversal of that situation and it is in the period with which we are now dealing that the way was paved for the larger individualism. It is therefore a transitional period, and like all such periods is of great importance. Our attention is too liable to be held by the thing when it breaks upon the view full of life and energy and to overlook the processes that led up to the new movement. Our last study has shown us the movements of the nations, the struggles and conflicts through an extended period that brought us to the close of the Medieval era. We now proceed to examine the institutions of that period that exerted a mighty influence, and the dawn of modern times in the civilization of the Renaissance. It is important that we note the manner in which institutions were related and the influence of one upon the other, so that when one ceased to exist that much of support was drawn from the rest.

Feudalism.

1. Nature of the System.

This is stated in a word in the chart—a social system based on land ownership. Land held by a tenant conditioned upon certain services rendered to his lord was called *fief*, and in the Middle Ages this developed into a system which we designate by the term feudalism, a word derived from the Latin *feodum*.

2. Origin and Elements.

The germ of feudalism is to be found in the time of the conquest of Gaul by the Franks, who divided the land among themselves, the king receiving the largest portion. All grants of land made by the king obligated those receiving the same to render the king personal service. This gradually became an established method of living as well as of government in Western Europe, the dominion of Charlemagne falling into the hands of feudal lords. When danger threatened, the weaker lords attached themselves to the stronger just as in the last days of the Roman Empire the poor and those heavily burdened sought the protection of the strong and settled on their lands. Under the following heads the leading facts and features are briefly stated:

(1.) That those receiving lands from the King under the

beneficiary system, or those under the practice of *commendation* who attached themselves to a lord assumed obligations and promised fidelity and obedience.

(2.) The one who made the feudal grant was known as liege, while the one to whom the grant was made was the liegeman or vassal.

(3.) While the vassal obligated himself to support his lord by rendering military service and assistance in judicial affairs, the lord obligated himself to protect the vassal and see that he received justice in his relations with others.

(4.) The estate of the father, upon his death, fell to the eldest son, and in the event of there being no heirs the fief belonged to the lord.

(5.) The feudal family comprised, in its broader sense, "all the possessors of fiefs and their vassals—a great family, indeed, related by ties of service and kinship, and including not laymen alone, but even bishops and monastic orders." Many social distinctions were preserved. The lord's castle was a fortress protected by its position and fortifications, the members of his immediate family sharing the duties of the household.

(6.) To the serfs the lord let out his land which he reserved and was called the *domain*, and received in return the serf's labor or a part of his crops.

(7.) The Church played an important part in the feudal system, large sections of land being bestowed upon ecclesiastical institutions. "About one-third of Germany was ecclesiastical land ruled by archbishops and abbots."

3. Significance and influence of feudalism.

Under this system there was necessarily a lack of central government, each lord ruled according to his own interests and exercised force to secure his ends. Disputations over territories brought these sovereigns into constant conflict dominated by personal greed.

It is commonly noted, however, how under the feudal order Christendom was saved from heathen invaders, by virtue of the manner in which the feudal domains were fortified and the system of mutual protection secured by the organization. Again, feudalism brought under cultivation great tracts of land, and greatly advanced agricultural interests.

Not the least of the merits that belong to this social order was the development of such virtues as honor and reverence for woman, and what is known as chivalry, our next topic of study.

4. Decline of feudalism.

From the very nature of feudalism it could not hope to become a permanent state of society. It was temporary and transitional and must cease to exist under a higher religious, political and economic civilization. Its two principles, riches and force, were too limited. And while it developed a certain individuality and a sense of loyalty much in advance of an irrational obedience of the slave to his master, yet the lord was an autocrat exacting all he could possibly obtain.

From the closing years of the thirteenth century great

changes developed in the growth of monarchies and commercial conditions. In England, France and Germany the authority of the king became established, and the French Revolution swept from that soil every trace of the feudal system.

Questions.

1. What conditions favored feudalism following the fall of the Empire of Charlemagne?
2. What was the difference between the beneficiary system (*beneficium*) and the practice of *commendation*?
3. State the difference between a vassal and a serf.
4. How should the position of the serf be distinguished from slavery and free labor?
5. What ceremony attended the conveying of land to a vassal, and what was the form of investiture in the case of ecclesiastical grants?
6. How was the military system constituted? How was the army composed and how did it operate?
7. What was the chief defect in the feudal system?

Topics for Study.

1. The Origin of Feudalism. Adam's *Civilization During the Middle Ages*, pp. 194-217; Emerton's *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, ch. xv.
2. The Feudal Society and Family Life. Guizot's *History of European Civilization*; Adam's *Medieval and Modern History*, pp. 28, 90, 91.

3. Feudalism in England. *History of All Nations*, x, 325-335.
4. Feudalism in France. *History of All Nations*, viii, 162; ix, 81, 224, 255.
5. Feudalism in Germany. *History of All Nations*, viii, 225, 230, 289, 306.
6. Struggle of Feudalism with Monarchy. *History of All Nations*, x, 144, 265-324.

Chivalry.

The word *Chivalry* originally signified a body of horsemen, the word being derived from the French word *Cheval*, signifying horse, hence the application of the word to knights. By chivalry, in the Middle Ages, was meant the institution of knighthood. This system exerted a tremendous influence upon this period, and the statement of one writer is not too strong that, "Excepting Christianity, no single cause made so profound a contrast between the ancient and the modern people."

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. What were the essential virtues of knighthood?
2. Chaucer's description of a knight. *Prologue to the Canterbury Tales*.
3. What requirements were necessary to membership in this order?
4. What education or training was essential to knighthood? Was any learning, as we understand the term, required?

5. General Characteristics of Chivalry. Cutt's *Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages*, pp. 311-460.

6. What was the ceremony that inducted into knighthood? The oaths of the knight?

7. Chivalry at Its Best, as set forth in Scott's *Ivanhoe* and *The Talisman*.

8. The Chivalry of King Arthur's Time in England, Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*.

9. Chivalry in England for Youthful Readers, Pyle's *Men of Iron*.

10. A Boy of the Middle Ages. Pyle's *Otto of the Silver Hand*.

The Passing of Chivalry.

Chivalry reached its zenith during the Crusades. The virtues of knighthood were exemplified during the wars between France and England in the manner in which these enemies treated each other. All this was changed, however, when the discovery of gunpowder altered the mode of warfare. Under these new conditions the spirit of chivalry decayed. "The rise and fall of chivalry were contemporaneous with the rise and fall of the feudal system, of which the former was merely an outgrowth. In the fourteenth century its influence was rapidly declining, and by the end of the fifteenth it had practically disappeared or survived only in titled adventurers who aped the manners without practicing the principles of genuine knighthood."

Asceticism.

The origin of this practice does not belong to this period nor to Christian ideas, for it existed among the pagan nations, as in Egypt and Greece, as an offering to the gods, or under the belief that peculiar benefits would accrue to those who thus isolated themselves from the world. Asceticism is not to be confounded with the teachings of Judaism and Christianity. Features of the Jewish system designed to isolate the Jew from other peoples for the peculiar ends for which the race was selected carried in no sense the idea of asceticism. Again, Christianity in demanding separation from the world is not to be interpreted in ascetic terms. The genius of Christianity is the very antithesis of this idea of seclusion and announces the conquest of the world by its principles by personal contact and a vigorous activity.

The early hermits lived alone in a desert place, taking upon themselves vows of poverty and chastity, and when hermits became associated in their isolation and lived together, the vow of obedience was assumed.

The stylites or *pillar saints* was an exaggeration of this practice of seclusion. They reared pillars on the top of which was their hut with scarcely sufficient space in which to move. Saint Simeon of the fourth century added to his pillar until it reached sixty feet and was about three yards in circumference. Upon this he lived for thirty-seven years.

In striving after a life of chastity the hermit entertained the most mistaken notions and perverted the very Scriptures he thought he was magnifying. If one were plundered of his

possessions he considered he was following the scriptural injunction in overtaking the thief and handing him something which had escaped his notice.

Monasticism.

The monasticism of the East has never exercised a strong influence, following closely the manner of the early hermits. It was quite different with the monasticism of the West. From the time that Athanasius (340 A. D.) brought two monks into western Europe they traveled far to the west and established monasteries in great numbers occupied by thousands of monks.

1. The Benedictines. This order was founded by Benedict of Nursia. He established certain rules for the government of his monks. Hitherto they had followed in their own way and kept their vows. Benedict laid down rules regulating their conduct for every hour. A part of the time was devoted to work and other hours to prayer and meditation. This system received the hearty support of Pope Gregory the Great. Under this system the monks became a real benefit to society. During the sixth century literary interests were developed, and in the intellectual pursuits of the monasteries lay one of the most vital facts of the Middle Ages.

2. The House of Cluny. The famous house that was destined to exert such a powerful influence in Europe, was established at Cluny in Burgundy by Count Berno in 910 A. D. The object of this abbot in this new establishment was to

restore the spiritual life of the monasteries which had fallen into disrepute. Luxury and immorality had taken the place of simplicity and purity. Simony (Acts viii, 9-24) was the prevailing ecclesiastical evil. So successful was Count Berno in restoring the Benedictine rule that many sought admittance to the new order. The result was Cluny became the center of a system of which the other monasteries were tributaries, and dictated the rules for general control. "By the middle of the twelfth century the abbot of Cluny had no less than two thousand houses, mostly in France, tributary to him, and the position he occupied in the Christian world was second only to that of the pope, whom at times he exceeded in actual influence."

Merits and Demerits of Monasticism.

Our space does not permit us to say much of either. That the system had demerits and was open to criticism no unprejudiced mind can refuse to accept. Stress has frequently been laid upon the fact that monasticism drained the world of its best talent, shut it up in monasteries and kept it from its largest contact with the world. It has also been shown how this institution was inimical to the family and the position of women and hence was striking at the root institutions of the race. We have already seen how that in the possession of wealth monasticism was not proof against the evils of idleness and immorality. But in this we must not be unfair. Such evils are liable to attend the acquisition of wealth by any institution thoroughly good and desirable in itself.

We should never fail to appreciate the positive benefits of Monasticism to the world. "The monks were the civilizers of the Middle Ages, the unifying agency which held together the diverging ranks of human society. In particular, the monks actually preserved, during the darkness and night of those early centuries, all of Christianity, civilization and learning that survived in the West." Among their scholars were such men as Duns Scotus, Roger Bacon, William of Occam. They established a foundation upon which the modern era might plant its feet, and conferred immense benefits for which the world must ever feel its deepest indebtedness. Not only have they served the ages in these respects, they made large contributions along such lines as the art of embroidery, their work in ivory, wood, gold and bronze, their fresco-painting, Mosaic art and manuscript work in vellum. They engaged in the various trades and in all of the activities of the time, and their monasteries ministered to the deepest needs of the people.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. House of Cluny. *The New International Encyclopædia*, article *Monasticism*. *History of All Nations*, viii, 253-300; ix, 35.
2. What were the peculiarities of the Grammont Order, established in 1073?
3. The Carthusian Order. Adam's *Civilization During the Middle Ages*, pp. 230-244. *History of All Nations*, xviii, 235.

4. The Cistercians, *The New International Encyclopædia*, article *Monasticism*. *History of All Nations*, ix, 64-74, 85.

5. When were the Mendicant orders established?

6. The Franciscans. Adam's *Civilization During the Middle Ages*, pp. 230-244. Tout's *Empire and Papacy*, pp. 96-99, 198-209.

7. Dominican Order. *History of All Nations*, ix, 189, 252; xi, 26, 34.

8. What were the causes of the spread of monasticism?

9. Would a strong central government have been a greater or less advantage to monasticism? What was the dominant political system of that time?

10. When did the influence of monasticism begin to decline?

THE RENAISSANCE.

Anything like a full statement of the facts relative to the learning, literature and art of this period would be quite aside from the plan and scope of this volume. On the other hand it lies within the realm of our purpose to note the relation of this great moment to what preceded and what followed, and thus grasp its historic significance.

I. Early and Later Learning.

From our study of Greece and Rome we saw, especially in the case of the former, the intellectual civilization that was developed. When these nations declined so did the culture which they created. When Rome fell instead of a new great state

with an influential civilization following it to give these things a new impulse, the conquerors were barbarians, whose dominant interest was conquest. Under these conditions and the prevailing ignorance the intellectual and æsthetic civilization of Greece and Rome practically passed away.

1. Scholasticism.

In the disappearance of schools, learning was confined almost entirely to the monks, and kept within the cloister. We have seen in a former study the new impulse given to learning by Charlemagne and his schools. The second impulse was given by scholasticism.

The object of this new movement was to secure conformity of faith to reason, *i. e.*, to furnish a rational and logical basis for the world-order consistently with church doctrines. From the ninth to the latter part of the twelfth century such Schoolmen as Eregina, Gerbert, Lafranc and Abelard developed this theological scholasticism. The latter was the leading representative of the rationalistic movement, the contention of which was that reason and not dogma was the only safe guide—that “nothing is to be believed but what has been first understood.”

The later Schoolmen appeared in the thirteenth century. The three great representatives were Elbertus Magnus (1205-1280), Thomas Aquinas (1224-1274), and Duns Scotus, who was born in the British Isles about 1270 and became a distinguished teacher both at Oxford and the University of Paris.

Notwithstanding the manner in which the abstractions of

scholasticism would seem absurd to us, it was far from being useless in some of the results and especially in its influence upon later movements. “While scholasticism exaggerated, it developed to a marked degree the power of deductive reasoning; it taught the use and value of language as the instrument of thought, and made apparent the necessity of nice discriminations in the use of words. It laid the foundation upon which modern education, beginning with the Renaissance, was built.” Thus it is of the first importance that the student grasp these basic elements and see how they fit into the structure of intellectual development.

2. The later learning in Italy.

The feudal system was the dominant political organization of the Middle Ages. There was no great controlling nation, and no distinctive national unity. It was a transitional period, made up of various societies. General intelligence was wholly wanting, and in the monasteries alone were there any intellectual tendencies, and even there superstition abounded. But by the middle of the sixteenth century all conditions, political and intellectual, had changed. Feudalism was dead as was chivalry, and with the commercial activity progress was made in all matters of culture. The modern nations became established, and in every sense a new world had appeared. It was in Italy that the Renaissance as an intellectual revival was distinguished more than in any other nation, and upon the intellectual awakening of this period depended in large measure the revivals in commerce, literature and art.

(1.) The period of classical learning.

The Latin as used and spoken was much inferior to the Latin of Ancient Rome, and to the classics of the Augustan Age the scholars of Italy turned their attention. The classical learning that had disappeared was now restored as a revivifying force by Petrarch, Boccaccio and others. An interest in Greek and Greek manuscripts resulted naturally from this classical awakening, and the monasteries of Europe were searched for the ancient classics. Agents were sent by Pope Nicholas V to the East and the West where such manuscripts might be found and deposited in the Vatican library which he founded. When Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks, in 1453, "the westward flight of Greek scholars was greatly increased, and most of them took refuge in Italy, where they established classical schools a second time, bringing to the West the genius and wisdom of the Greeks." This attracted large numbers of students from other nations, who in time returned to their native lands and spread the new culture throughout western Europe.

(2.) The period of criticism in Italy.

The absorbing interest in the classics resulted in the more exact understanding of them, and the history with which they were related. By such a study the early ages were restored, ruling ideas and culture of the people brought to light and interpreted, and, in a word, a general reconstruction of that early civilization. Thus we see how the things so dominant in the ancient period that had passed out of existence are now alive

again, a breathing, palpitating life and a life-giving power to a new age, the contribution of the past to later times.

It only required the invention of printing by Gutenberg, in 1438, in Germany, to popularize culture as it could not be done by hand-written parchments, and this with the manufacture of paper from rags in the sixteenth century produced a revolution in the realm of learning.

3. Learning in other countries.

The awakening in England arose through the labors of Bracciolini, Vitelli and Grocyn, which developed into practical forms in medicine, ethics and religious reforms. Colet, who became dean of St. Paul's, labored to interpret Christianity, relieving it of the dogmatizing of the Middle Ages. "The awakening," says Green, "of a rational Christianity, whether in England or the Teutonic world at large, began with the Italian studies of John Colet." With him was associated Erasmus, who, in the closing years of Henry VIII, established more grammar schools than had been founded for a period of three centuries.

To these names may be added that of Thomas More (1478-1535), who is best known as the author of *Utopia*, and Roger Ascham (1516-1568), author of *The Schoolmaster*.

In France the two names that stand out prominently are Budacus (1467-1540), one of the greatest French scholars and authors of his time, and John Calvin (1509-1564), whose theological works made him the great constructionist of the Protestant Reformation.

In Germany, Martin Luther greatly advanced classical culture, as did his friend and helper Melancthon, and "by the middle of the sixteenth century Germany was practically the equal of Italy in scholarship, while England and France were far behind."

II. Literature.

Literature is one of the most essential expressions of a people. A knowledge of European literature is indispensable to a knowledge of European history. The literature of the Renaissance should be judged by the conditions of the times which it represents and at the same time should not be misjudged by the medieval coarseness which it distinguishes.

1. The revival in Italy.

In the midst of political agitation, literature and art developed to a high degree. The founders of Italian literature were Petrarch, Boccaccio and Dante. The *Medici* of Florence actively stimulated learning.

Dante's immortal work, the *Divina Commedia*, was the creation of his own mind unaided by any existing model, while its influence on literature has been inestimable. The poem falls into three parts describing Hell, Purgatory and Paradise.

We have already seen the effect of classical study upon Italian learning. But the continuous study of the ancients was detrimental to the development of the Italian tongue. It was used by the common people, but scholars refused to write in their native language.

The two names that stand out prominently during the second revival are Machiavelli and Ariosto. The former is best known by his famous work *The Prince*, "in which he investigates the rule of a despotic sovereign and which embodies maxims of tyranny and a diabolical system of politics that have made the name of Machiavelli synonymous with political cunning and duplicity." It was upon his one great poem, *Orlando Furioso*, that the fame of Ariosto was established.

Italy was the natural birthplace of the Renaissance, and the influence of the literature of this period (1265-1500) has been widely felt.

2. The revival in France.

The mixture of Latin and northern languages gave rise to the Provençal. In this new tongue hundreds of poets called the troubadours developed a poetic spirit of an amazing nature. It became the rage and fashion of the time. One of the most eminent of the troubadours was Richard Coeur de Lion. When Provençal lapsed into a mere dialect, the literary language of France came forth, following the Norman invasion. The poets of this period called themselves *trouvères*. The two writers demanding notice preceding the Renaissance are Froissart (1337-1410), and Comines (1445-1509).

Rabelais (1483-1553), whom Bacon called the "Great Jester of France," was the most striking figure of this period. His masterpiece, *Adventures of Gargantua and Pantagruel*, made him "to France what Shakespeare, Cervantes and Ariosto were to England, Spain and Italy."

It was Montaigne who best represented the spirit of scepticism that resulted from this intellectual development. He introduced into France the philosophical study of human nature.

The seven writers called *The Pleiade*, whose object was the improvement of the French tongue, contributed largely to making it a truly literary language.

3. The revival in Spain.

The four great names that appear during the period 1411-1600 are Juan de Mena, Mendoza, Cervantes and Lope De Vega. The influence of Italy upon the Spanish awakening was peculiarly strong favored by various circumstances of likeness of language, proximity and relations of the two peoples. The first of the writers noted greatly enriched the language, the second contributed to the literature as historian and poet, the third was the author of *Don Quixote*, the most widely read book of any Spanish author and one profoundly affecting society; the fourth, the most popular dramatist of his time, having written about fifteen hundred plays.

This brief survey will enable us to catch the spirit of this new epoch in the realm of literature, and to form some idea of the mental expansion in these countries of the Renaissance.

III. *Revival in Art.*

It is in the three branches, architecture, sculpture and painting, that the glory of the Renaissance is especially distinctive, and in which its influence will continue to be felt for all time. During this period Italy holds the first place, and by her

creations has stimulated a love for art and constructed a new world in the realm of æsthetics. Thus in the midst of the enlarging conditions of this epoch we come to this new expression of human appreciations in their varied exhibitions of form, beauty and truth.

1. In Italy.

(1.) Architecture. The three great names that represent the work of the Renaissance in this field are Brunelleschi, the Florentine architect whose great work was the dome of the Cathedral, "one of the greatest accomplishments of human ingenuity;" Bramante, who labored under the patronage of Popes Alexander VI and Julius II, and began the present St. Peter's in Rome, and Palladio, with whom "the period of originality ends and a slavish imitation of Roman architecture and an extravagance in decoration begin." It was under Bramante that the Renaissance architecture reached its zenith.

In the period of decay Michelangelo (1475-1564) appeared, whose greatest triumph in architecture is the dome of St. Peter's.

(2.) Sculpture.

Three great sculptors appeared almost contemporaneously. The first, Ghiberti, while architecture was at its height. Of his bronze doors of the Baptistry in Florence, Michelangelo said they were worthy to serve as the gates of Paradise.

Donatello, the fellow-student of Brunelleschi, was a vigorous artist. The strength of his work is seen in his *Saint*

George, while his description of Child Nature was unsurpassed by any of his time.

The masterpiece of Luca della Robbia was the bronze doors of the sacristy of the Cathedral of Florence, although he is better known by his enameled reliefs.

Italy was ripe for the genius of "the one great characteristic figure of the Italian Renaissance in art"—Michelangelo, distinguished as architect, sculptor and painter. He was encouraged in his early efforts by Lorenzo de Medici. His greatest triumph was the statue of Moses, "the type of that massiveness of form and intensity of expression which characterized all his work." In giving so much of art his influence was such that others lost that which constitutes the true artist. So overpowering was his genius "that for generations few artists thought of anything but imitating the great master. As a result, each artist sacrificed his own personality, and sculpture lost in Italy the elegance, beauty and force of the Renaissance."

(3.) Painting.

The names that represent the Renaissance at its height are the following:

Fra Angelico (1387-1455). This Florentine artist, famous for his religious paintings, claimed that his work was the result of inspiration and consequently never altered his productions. His madonnas and angels are in Rome and Florence.

Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519), inventor, engineer, architect and sculptor, was a Florentine and one of the greatest painters.

That by which he is best known is the *Last Supper*, executed for the duke of Milan.

The lasting renown of Michelangelo is to be found in his productions in the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. These consist of the *Last Judgment*, considered by some the greatest painting in the world, and the ceiling decorations. Standing in this chapel he conceives the stupendous plan of depicting the world from the Creation to the Judgment. The *Last Judgment* occupied eight years, and contains 314 figures.

Raphael Sanzio (1483-1520) has been rightly called the "Prince of Painters." Under the influence of Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci his efforts were directed, while he developed a style peculiarly his own. At the age of twenty-five he began his great work on the walls of the Vatican, and during the same period produced the *Sistine Madonna* and *Transfiguration*, being engaged upon the latter at the time of his death which occurred in his thirty-seventh year. He was often spoken of as the Divine Raphael and enjoyed a distinction in Rome that seldom comes to men.

The work of Michelangelo is distinguished from that of Raphael in much the same way as is Milton from Shakespeare in the realm of poetry. The former represents the epic, while Raphael correlates with Shakespeare in the distinction of the historic order.

A great painting like a great poem is the expression of a great truth. It is truth seeking expression by artistic representation, so that in Raphael we have a great interpreter of Biblical writers, while his characters breathed the spirit of

religion. The "Battle of the Milvian Bridge" is no ordinary battle scene. It is the end of a mighty conflict in which Christianity is victorious over Paganism. Unusual elements enter into the scene. Peter's Deliverance from Prison by the Angel is one of the most remarkable examples of *Chiaro-oscuro* in existence. The intellectual element is pronounced in all of Raphael's work. Many regard the "Disputa" as the greatest painting in the world. On the wall opposite this marvellous production is "The School of Athens." For one who was not a student of philosophy the whole conception and the arrangement and representation of the elements is remarkable. The temple of philosophy in which the thinkers have gathered is itself a work of art. Raphael indicates that all speculation must rest upon the pure sciences. The three great figures, Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, are drawn with remarkable accuracy, Socrates in discussion with his audience, Plato with his upraised finger indicating that truth is from above and Aristotle pointing to the earth emphasizing the natural sources of our knowledge. Within our limited space it is impossible to do more than simply call attention to a few of these masterpieces which for all time shall immortalize the genius that produced them and leave him unrivaled in the field of painting.

It was Correggio (1494-1534) who developed to the highest degree the art of *Chiaro-oscuro*, the true harmony of light and dark effects. He is best known by *The Holy Night* and *Nativity of Christ*.

2. The German Renaissance.

In the sixteenth century German painting reached its highest

point. "Loftier treatment and more ideal effects tempered the German realism and created a great art which never lost its national characteristics."

The two names of special significance are Durer (1471-1528), who distinguished himself in etching and the invention of the process of printing wood-cuts in two colors. Among his copper engravings are *Saint Jerome in His Study*, *Melancholia*, *Death and the Devil*. The British Museum, and the galleries at Munich, Florence and Vienna contain his best productions.

Holbrein (1497-1543), the second great painter of the German Renaissance, excelled in portraits. He was the court painter of Henry VIII. His greatest painting is the *Madonna of the Burgomaster Meyer*.

3. The Netherlands.

Art was given a great stimulus by the Italian influence without impairing the native development. Rubens (1577-1640) was a painter of large conceptions. While living at Antwerp he produced his *Elevation of the Cross*, and *Descent from the Cross*, by which he is best known.

The most celebrated of the Dutch artists was Rembrandt (1606-1669), distinguished for his coloring and blending of light and shade. Among his great productions are *The Night Watch* and the *Lesson in Anatomy*.

4. Spain.

The national school of painting was established in the seventeenth century. Two great painters belong to this period.

Velasquez (1599-1660) attained to rare technical perfection in his *Nativity*, and Murillo (1617-1682), the pupil of Velasquez, dealt with religious subjects in a masterly manner. His fame rests mainly upon the *Immaculate Conception*, upon which he labored a score of times.

This brief sketch is designed as an outline of this great development from the time of the early learning and the Schoolmen to the close of the seventeenth century. The significance of such an awakening as the dawn of the modern era must be realized at once. It is one of the most important transitional periods in human history, restoring vital contributions of the ancients and passing on to an enlarging consciousness. There could be but one result of such a revival, *i. e.*, the breaking away from certain fixed orders and limitations, larger visions and a larger individuality. And this is what is awaiting modern times to realize and develop to the highest degree. It is this to which human struggles tend, the child growing to manhood to act for himself and live his life under personal direction and achievement. The study of these historic moments is to note the progress of this evolution of the race coming to the larger individualism and the steps indicating the advance from stage to stage. When we enter the next era we shall readily understand in what sense there could not be a Renaissance and not a Reformation, and how there could not be a Reformation without a Renaissance. In other words, it is simply the contribution of one period to another. The principles of yesterday become the practices of to-day. The world is a unit, and it is the function of historical research to discover that unity and

trace the movement and find the fundamental grounds or the causes and effects in the world's development. Anything less than this is a very limited and inadequate idea of history. Again, it is not sufficient to ascertain the immediate reason for certain great changes. The real causes very often lie much farther back and while overlooked were the things essentially operative in the movements that we have assigned to nearer causes that lie at our hand. For example, the American Revolution is not the result merely of certain attitudes of Great Britain to the Colonies calling out opposition and eventuating in independence. When we read the Declaration of Independence we must first read the Magna Charta. It would be a mistake to separate the revolutionary spirit from the trend in English history from the time of King John. Thus in the light of these brief suggestions let us not fail to see the significance of this period of intellectual and æsthetic awakening in what follows, and to bear in mind the fact that it is upon intellectual developments that all others depend.

The Chart.

It will be well at this point for the student to review these Medieval Institutions and the Renaissance as given in the Chart. Note the central fact and its various connections. In a very brief time the Chart will furnish the essential facts as could not be done by gathering them together from text books.

Topics for Study and Suggestions.

For the Early Learning of the Middle Ages the following works are commended: Rashdail's *Universities of Europe in*

the Middle Ages; McCabe's *Peter Abelard*; *Pennsylvania Reprints*, Vol. II, 3, 4.

1. The Golden Age of Scholasticism—the thirteenth century. *History of All Nations*, Vol. IX, 85 f., 126 ff.; X, 347; XI, 31.

2. The Medici, the patrons of learning. *History of All Nations*, X, 115, 362, 369 ff.; XI, 218, 219. For the period of the New Learning and Renaissance the following works may be consulted: Robinson's *Western Europe*, Ch. xxii; Thatcher and Schwill's *Europe in the Middle Age*, Ch. xxiii; J. A. Symond's *Short History of the Renaissance*, an authoritative work.

3. The labors of Erasmus. In the *Pennsylvania Reprints*, Vol. I, 1, is a letter from Erasmus to Ulrich von Hutten. *History of All Nations*, XI, 25, 27, 40, 43, 92.

4. Thomas More and Henry VIII.

5. Dante and his masterpiece. Fisher's *Outlines of Universal History*, p. 307. *History of All Nations*, IX, 325 f.; X, 114. His influence on Italian patriotism, XVIII, 290.

6. Machiavelli. *History of All Nations*, XI, 31, 227 f.

7. Rabelais as a satirist. *History of All Nations*, XI, 212, 435.

8. Cervantes. His object in writing *Don Quixote*.

9. Roman Architecture. *History of All Nations*, IV, 58, 84, 128, 301; V, 36, 43, 51, 102; VI, 151, 255 ff.; VII, 194, 258, 319.

10. Italian sculpture. Michelangelo's *Moses*. *History of All Nations*, XI, 219, 228 ff., 449, 459. For the Italian painters

the student is referred to the little volumes published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. These contain a collection of pictures, an introduction and an estimate of the artist's qualities. Special attention is called to the volumes *Michelangelo*, *Raphael* and *Correggio*. See also Lodge's *The Close of the Middle Ages*, Ch. xxii, and the last chapter of *Europe in the Middle Ages*, by Thatcher and Schwill.

11. *The Last Judgment*. Distinguish the four zones of the painting, and note how the physical expressions of body and face have delineated the emotions of fear, dread, despair, hope and relief.

12. Raphael's *Deliverance of Peter*. Note the two stages, with special attention to the blending of light and darkness.

13. The *Disputa*. The four great zones from the representation of God to the Church on earth. What would constitute this the greatest painting in the world as it is so regarded by some critics?

14. *Sistine Madonna*. Note the artistic perfection. Who are the characters before the madonna?

15. *The Transfiguration*. When Raphael died this painting was not completed. Note the different coloring in the lower group in the valley. What is the significance of the lower scene as given in the gospels? Note with what exactness Raphael depicts the historical facts.

IV. The Commercial Revival.

One of the most important interests of this period was the

commercial development together with exploration and discovery. In the early days of the Middle Age commerce was greatly hindered by "poor transportation, ignorance of economic laws, the want of a money standard, the absence of competition and the confusion caused by inroads of the barbarians." But with the rise of towns and cities the foundations were laid for modern industrialism. The commune was distinguished from the free city in that the former recognized as its head the King or noble and rendered feudal dues, while the latter was a commonwealth. During the period from 1135 to 1250 the movement toward better government was actively supported by the merchants who were banded together in the form of guilds.

The question of trade routes and more perfect geographical knowledge entered into those discoveries and explorations that opened up a new world. Goods from India and the Far East were brought to Europe either by the way of the Black Sea and the Danube, or by the Persian Gulf, the River Euphrates and by sea to the West, or by the Red Sea. These routes were closed by the Ottoman Turks, which forced Europe to discover a new way to the East.

Under these necessities travel and exploration had a commercial interest, and when through the travels of Marco Polo it was learned that a vast body of water lay east of China, the way was opened for the discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In order to appreciate the full bearing of this period upon the new era we are giving but a brief outline of this commercial activity and accompanying exploration,

these to be taken up more fully in connection with American History.

Questions.

1. Of what did the various guilds consist and why were they organized?
2. The institution of the Fairs came to its fullest development during the Medieval Age. What purpose did they subserve?
3. What was the Third Estate, and what classes did it include?
4. What cities were included in the Lombard League, in what struggle did they become involved and what was the cause of it?
5. Leagues were formed for purposes of protection. What was the Hanseatic League and the special object of its formation?
6. Who was Marco Polo and what were the results of his travels?
7. Who were the leading Portuguese explorers and what did they achieve?
8. What was the idea of Columbus regarding a new route to India, who rendered him assistance, and what resulted?
9. What conclusions were being reached by Copernicus at this time and what system of astronomy was being set aside by his investigations?
10. What other Spanish adventurers followed the lead of Columbus, and what did they discover?

11. What interest did France take in the New World, and who was the leading French explorer?

12. What was the famous bill issued by Pope Alexander VI, and what part did England take in American explorations?

13. What effect did these new oceanic routes have upon the commercial development?

Thus the Medieval Era accomplished its mission. At the fall of Rome began a period of disintegration and ignorance. The empire of Charlemagne arose and fell. Feudalism became dominant, attended with evil and good effects and disappeared in the fifteenth century. The Crusades brought to Europe an intellectual advantage from contact with the Saracenic civilization. The Monks were the civilizers of the Middle Age and kept burning the torch of knowledge. The early learning paved the way for the new learning and literature. Literature

and art created a new world, enlarging the vision and stimulating an interest in the things that refine and enrich the soul. In all these respects Europe is expanding and man is developing by these processes into a larger individuality. He is creating for himself a new age, walking steadily from the confinements of the past into a larger freedom and self-realization. It was only necessary for the Ottoman Turk to close the routes to India to send him in search of another, and in seeking for India he found America, which has become to humanity another word for *Opportunity*. All the lines of development have been followed so that upon the opening up of a new great world man might enter upon his inheritance on American soil untrammelled and thus afford the new nation the fullest opportunity in the development of modern civilization. But it is sufficient for the present that we grasp the leading facts and to see how the dawn of the modern era breaks into view standing upon these high places of the Medieval awakening.

From the Fall of Constantinople to the Peace of Westphalia

Reformation-The Great Awakening

Breaking up of the old order. The general stir and revival of learning, new inventions and discoveries. Political and social forces in the struggle for religious liberty.

Protestant

*Germany-Luther, Melancthon, France-Farel,
Switzerland-Swingli, Calvin at Geneva.
England-Wycliffe, Tyndale, Erasmus.
Scotland-Hamilton, Wishart, Knox.
France*

1. *From Louis XI to Louis XII, 1461-1515.
France centralized, Wars of Louis XII.*
2. *Francis I to Henry IV, 1515-1610. Beginning of modern France. The Guises and Huguenots. Religious civil wars.*
3. *Cardinal Richelieu. Power and policies.*

Germany

Italy

1. *Frederick III, 1452-93
Last emperor to be crowned at Rome.*
2. *Maximilian I, 1493-1519. Enterprises.*
3. *Charles V, 1519-56.*
4. *Ferdinand I, 1556-64*
5. *Maximilian II, 1564-76*
6. *Rudolf II, 1576-1612.
Catholic reaction.*
7. *Matthias, 1612-19.
Beginning of Thirty Years' War.*

1. *From 1453 to death of Savonarola, 1498. City States. Led Europe in culture. The Medici overthrown. Savonarola's Constitution.*
2. *Supremacy of Florence. League of Venice*
3. *Invasions of Louis XII 1499, 1507-15. Holy League. Cambray.*
4. *Spanish in control.*

1453-1648

Catholic

1. *Measures of Paul III, 1534-49.*
2. *Loyola and the order of the Jesuits.*
3. *Paul IV. The Inquisition. Abolished, 1834.*
4. *Council of Trent, 1545-63. Reforms.*

England

1. *From Henry VI to Queen Mary, 1422-1558. War of the Roses, 1455-85.*
2. *Elizabeth, 1558-1603. Puritanism. War with Spain. England's Golden Age.*
3. *James I, 1603-25. Stuart Kings.*
4. *Charles I, 1625-49. Doom of Divine Right.*

Spain and the Netherlands

1. *Ferdinand and Isabella, 1469.
Conquest of Granada. Columbus-America.*
2. *Charles I, 1516-56.
Spanish greatness.
Thirty Years' War*
1. *First stage, 1618-29.
Bohemian conflict.
Germany, England,
Holland, Denmark.*
2. *Second stage, 1629-32.
Swedish struggle.*

3. *Philip II, 1556-98. Inquisition. The Armada.*
4. *Philip III, 1598-1621.
Thirty Years' War.*
5. *Philip IV, 1621-65.
Rapid declension.*
3. *Third stage, 1632-48.
Swedish and French victories. Richelieu. Defeat of Germany. Peace of Westphalia, 1648. Terms of treaty*

MODERN ERA—FROM THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE TO THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA

We enter the last great era of human history, an era that is the inheritor of all the past ages. Dividing history into eras should not for a moment confuse or alter the fact that has been kept in view throughout these studies, *i. e.*, that human history is a unit, just as every individual life is a unit. It passes through its periods and we rightly speak of childhood and manhood, but it is the same individual in the process of growth and development. The same is true of the race. There was a time when it was young, young in years and understanding. Along the pathway of its life it has marked the stages of its development as it has looked upon the nations and civilizations which indicate such progress. The racial memory dwells upon its Egyptian period, its Babylonian, Grecian, Roman and medieval experiences. They all live within its recollection, have all entered with all their mighty forces into its growth and unfolding. The modern man was the primitive child, the medieval youth. History is the record of the paths he followed and how he came to follow them.

To distinguish the modern era and declare that the world has passed from its medieval stages is to discover a radical change and advance, a distinct mark of difference establishing the fact that a new period has been entered, a new life has

dawned, a new order instituted. In our last study we saw this process of enlargement and breaking away from former conditions. We saw how the great creations of antiquity seemed to be lost forever, but how in their recovery a new age was born. We saw the race standing again in the midst of high ideals and achievements facing a larger future that would bring it to its larger self-realization, its larger liberty and individualism. To this end all the past has contributed. Every argument of Abelard and Duns Scotus, every stanza of Dante and every painting of Raphael were so many steps toward that dawn that should announce the birth of a new day.

In stepping into this new day, therefore, let us fully appreciate all the processes and forces, the struggles, conflicts and conquests that have brought us to the light. One writer has briefly summarized the four sources of modern civilization:

"(1) To Greece we are indebted for ideals of beauty in literature and art and for those systems of thought upon which modern philosophical speculation is modeled.

(2) From Rome are derived those ideas of government and law on which many modern governments and codes are based.

(3) The Germans gathered from the wreck of the Roman Empire the fragments of its political, social and economic in-

stitutions, and, infusing new vigor into them, transformed them into institutions which answer the needs of modern society.

(4) Christianity contributed no less to modern civilization than did Greece, Rome and the Germans."

It is a difficult thing to sharply distinguish these eras with reference to certain great events, a difficulty that is emphasized by the fact that writers do not divide these great periods in the same way. That is true regarding the beginning of the Medieval Era. It is also true respecting the Modern whether, for instance, the period of the Renaissance should fall in modern times. Sharp lines of demarcation are not usually intended. They are relative rather than absolute.

When we come to the Modern Era, the commencement of which we have dated from the fall of Constantinople, certain well defined characteristics appear. Among these are the tendency to combine smaller into larger states; the superseding of the ecclesiastical by the political as a bond of union; the policy, by maintaining a balance of power, of protecting states by preventing any from extending its bounds unduly; the great commercial and industrial development together with a wide extension of culture and intellectual interests, the growth of free speech and public opinion.

THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION.

Our preceding study brought us to the dawn of the present era. We traced the great revivals of the Renaissance in learning, literature and art as also in commerce and discovery. We

now come to the great religious revival. It was a period of great intellectual awakening which could have but one result, the breaking away from the old order of things and seeking a larger freedom of thought both in religious and other respects. The mind refused to be dominated and have its rightful liberties curtailed and suppressed. It demanded the right to think for itself and not have its ideas and conclusions determined by existing conditions. This is a peculiar characteristic of modern times. For some time humanity had been struggling towards this ideal. It came to view in some respects in Scholasticism. Certain forms of authority that had been imposed had weakened with the extension of culture and intellectual development. The spirit of inquiry and criticism began to assert itself, and things formerly believed and accepted were now questioned.

The student, however, should be guarded against the mistake of supposing that the Reformation was simply of religious import. It had its political significance. Political and social forces entered into this struggle for religious liberty. The religious was representative of this growing tendency towards greater freedom manifested in various interests. The Reformation did not create these new conditions, it was one of the great results of the new order that had arisen, one of the currents in the great stream of progress. It was impossible to have the Renaissance and not a Reformation. It was a part of that great change that had come over Europe in which the struggle for greater freedom and a larger democracy had set in.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century Western Europe acknowledged the Pope as the head of the Church. But there was a growing discontent, and the Pope's authority began to be looked upon as inconsistent with the authority and rights of civil rulers. Practices in the Church, such as prayers for the dead, were called in question. The papal power, that at one time was almost absolute in temporal matters, became weakened, which was greatly increased by the dispute that arose regarding papal succession known as the Great Schism of the West. Within the Church itself was a need of reform. Thus in the weakening of papal authority, discontent as relating to that authority, the open disputations respecting practices and doctrines, the existing abuses within the Church, we find the principle causes of the Reformation. This great movement was destined to extend beyond the Church. Temporal princes regarded the papal power with feelings of jealousy. The Teutonic nations generally broke off from the Roman Church and refused to acknowledge the Pope's authority. Considering the relation between Church and State and the position of the Pope in the latter, the Reformation marks an era of radical political as well as religious changes.

I. The Reformation in Germany.

This was not the beginning of reform movements and doctrines. The Waldenses, the followers of Peter Waldo, were excommunicated in 1184. Then came the movement of Huss and Jerome of Prague, who were burned at the stake for promulgating the following doctrines:

"(1) That Christ is the only head of the Church; (2) that the papacy owes its existence solely to the favor of emperors; (3) that the Scripture confers no power on the Church to exercise authority over its members; (4) that a priest with pure motives cannot be deprived by the pope of his right to preach; (5) that the Holy Scripture is the only source and rule of Christian faith."

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. What incidents in Luther's religious experience were calculated to make him the great reformer?
2. What practice in the Church was the immediate cause of the Reformation, and how was it the occasion of Luther's Theses?
3. Luther's Theses. Kostlin's *Life of Luther*, pp. 82-94. Alzog's *Church History*, vol. iii, 11-15.
4. By what process was Luther excommunicated from the Church? How much was his attack upon the primacy of the pope responsible for this?
5. The Diet of Worms. Seebohm's *Protestant Revolution*, 115-135. Walker's *Reformation*.
6. What were Luther's activities after his excommunication?
7. What was the occasion of the Peasant War at this time, and how did it issue?
8. Character and work of Melancthon. Richard's *Philip Melancthon*.
9. Under what two princes were religious Leagues formed?

10. Note the advance made in religious freedom when at the Diet of Speyer (1529) "the Protestants took their stand upon the modern principle that a man's religion cannot be decided for him by the vote of a legislative body, but that it is a question for his own conscience and that he is required to give account of himself to God alone."

11. What great Confession was submitted to the Diet of Augsburg and what was the decision of that Diet? What connection did this have with the Smalkaldic League?

12. What precipitated the Smalkaldic War, and what did the Protestants gain in the Peace of Augsburg?

II. The Swiss Reformation.

It should be noted how general the reformation movement became. The fires of the Reformation blazed up simultaneously in the various countries. The time was ripe for a great religious revolution. Luther was one year older than Zwingli, who was to the Swiss Reformation what Luther was to the German. Both men were preaching against the sale of indulgences at the same time. On the doctrines of the sole authority of the Scriptures and Salvation by faith alone both agreed, but on the doctrine of the Lord's Supper Zwingli went further in his dissent from the Church. Other features entered into the Swiss Reformation. The Swiss were employed as mercenary soldiers by different powers. "Of the demoralizing influence of this practice Zwingli became deeply convinced; and his exertions as a Church reformer were mingled with a

patriotic zeal for the moral and political regeneration of Switzerland. Mainly by his influence Zurich separated from the jurisdiction of the bishop of Constance, and became Protestant in 1524. The example of Zurich was followed by Berne (1528) and by Basel (1529)."

Questions.

1. What was Zwingli's aim as to a republican constitution?
2. What were the steps that led to a civil war and what effect did the defeat of Zurich have upon the Reformation?
3. When did Geneva come over to the Protestant cause, and how did Calvin, the French theologian, come to settle in Geneva?
4. What was his success in consolidating the religious and municipal institutions of Geneva?
5. In what great work did he set forth and defend reform doctrines?

III. The Reformation in Sweden, Denmark and Norway.

By means of the Reformation the monarchical power was established in the Scandinavian countries. The favor which the movement received from these sovereigns enabled it to advance more rapidly than was the case in Germany. Lutheran teachers were induced to come to Sweden.

Questions.

1. What king of Sweden became a zealous follower of Luther?

2. What was his great declaration as to the supremacy of the king at the Diet of Westeras, and what statute was framed?

3. By what ruler were reform measures first instituted in Denmark and Norway?

4. What were the acts and decrees of the Diet of Copenhagen and what great impulse did they give to Protestantism?

IV. *The Reformation in France.*

While Francis was at war with Charles (1521-1526), which resulted in the utter defeat of the French army, and the renouncing of all claims to Milan, Genoa and Naples and to the suzerainty of Flanders and Artois, reform doctrines were taking hold of the French people. At the University of Paris religious enthusiasm was running high. Lectures on theology at the University were the most energetic of the reformers. While King Francis I was not in sympathy with the new doctrines, his sister, Margaret of Navarre, was an enthusiastic advocate of them.

Questions.

1. Under the persecution of Francis who was compelled to flee to Switzerland prior to the coming of Calvin?

2. What was the influence of Calvin's great work (*Institutes*) on the French people and in the establishment of churches?

3. What great massacre occurred in 1572, and what effect did it have upon the reform movement?

V. *The Reformation in England and Scotland.*

The Reformation in England was widely different from that in Germany. Its origin lay in political causes rather than in preceding religious movements or the influence of the new learning. Up to the time of Luther the teachings of Wyclif and the Lollards had sustained a religious revivalism, while the writings of More, Colet and the translation of the Bible by Tyndale had exercised a strong influence against the doctrines of the Roman Church. It was under Henry VIII that the religious revolution was brought about which resulted in momentous changes in the relations of Church and State.

In Scotland it was different. Hamilton, the first great reformer came under the influence of Luther and Melancthon. Wishart continued the work of Hamilton and like Hamilton suffered martyrdom. John Knox, the great Scottish reformer, was the friend and disciple of Wishart, and in time became the leading spirit in the opposition to the mass and image worship.

Questions.

What difficulties did Henry VIII encounter with the pope in suing for a divorce? Who was his wife? What archbishop declared in Henry's favor?

2. What was the Act of Supremacy of Parliament and in what relation to the Church did it place the king? For the text of this Act see *Medieval and Modern History*, part ii. pp. 52, 53, by Munro and Whitcomb.

3. What effect did this have upon papal authority?
4. When was the Church of England organized, and in what Articles was the faith of the Church expressed?
5. With what Queen was Knox brought into conflict because of his reform doctrines?
6. Under whose reign and influence was the Reformed Kirk of Scotland established?

VI. The Reformation in Other Countries.

By the middle of the sixteenth century Protestantism had taken deep root in the Netherlands. The struggle that followed between Protestantism and Catholicism was continued until the Peace of Westphalia when it came to an end.

In Bohemia the preaching of John Huss established the new doctrines but during the Thirty Years' War Protestantism was destroyed.

In Poland and Hungary Catholicism was finally victorious, while in Italy and Spain, after the Council of Trent, Protestantism practically disappeared.

THE CATHOLIC REFORMATION.

One of the results of the Protestant Reformation was the Catholic Reaction. It directed attention to abuses in the Church recognized by the Council of Trent. It awakened a new interest and a deeper devotion which brought to the Church a new life, an increased strength, unity and zeal.

Pope Paul III was the pope of the Catholic Reformation, whose devotion to the cause of reform was greatly supported

by Cardinal Contarini. Their attempt to induce the Protestant reformers to re-enter the Church was unsuccessful.

It was during this period of Paul III that the order of the Jesuits was founded by Loyola. It received the Pope's sanction in 1540. Its members took monastic vows and pledged absolute obedience to the pope. "Because of its zealous activity, its close relation to the papacy and its ceaseless struggle against heresy, the new order was the most effective barrier against the growing power of Protestantism." Missionary movements developed under this organization. Saint Francis Xavier was sent to India, and by the middle of the sixteenth century schools and missions were planted throughout Europe, India, China, Japan and South America.

The organization of the Inquisition begun by Paul III was completed by Paul IV, the power of which was exerted to the fullest extent to stamp out the new faith. Those convicted of heresy were subjected to various punishments but not with death. But the Inquisition in Spain has come under the condemnation of Catholics as well as Protestants.

The Council of Trent was convened in 1545 and continued, interrupted from time to time, until 1563. One of the principal objects in convening this Council was "the reconciliation of the Protestant faction with the Roman Church. The Peace of Augsburg, concluded in 1555, made such a reconciliation impossible." The dogmas and teachings of the Church were left unchanged, but the traffic in indulgences and various abuses were condemned. Papal authority was more definitely established. The influence of this Council was soon manifested

in the better moral and spiritual life of clergy and laity. "The old abuses in government and conduct practically disappeared at this time and have never again characterized the government of the Church as a whole."

For the study of this Reaction we would commend the following works: Ward's *Counter-Reformation*; Hughes' *Loyola and the Educational System of the Jesuits*; Ranke's *History of the Popes*; Balme's *European Civilization*.

FRANCE.

The Hundred Years' War left Charles VII undisputed master of France. Under Louis XI, Henry VII and Ferdinand the monarchy was greatly strengthened and extended in France, England and Spain. The period from 1453 to 1517 is a period of rivalry, and the commencement of the struggles relative to the balance of power. It is a period of invention and geographical exploration bringing into existence the New World, effecting a new civilization. Feudalism and chivalry had largely passed away. Centralization of power under Charles VII was opposed and the dissatisfied nobles, as also the Dauphin, engaged in intrigues. Under these conditions of general distrust and suspicion Charles practically starved to death so fearful was he of having his food poisoned.

While feudalism and a State religion have gone under in France they are not entirely dead. They continue the struggle for existence and before the French Revolution again make their appearance. Suppressed by the forceful measures of

Richelieu, absolutism takes their place. "The unwonted concentration of power stimulates France to rival the Hapsburgs and to push her boundaries outward toward Italy, Burgundy, Flanders and Spain. These struggles for power within and without, confused with the course of religious reform and an increase in material prosperity, make up the story of these two centuries in France."

Questions and Topics for Study.

The student will find the following works helpful: *The Growth of the French Nation*, by Adams; *The Growth and Decline of the French Monarchy*, by Mackinnon.

1. In following the policy of his father what were the measures of Louis XI?
2. What did the nobles intend by the "League of the Public Weal," and who stood at the head of the League?
3. What caused the fall of Burgundy?
4. What was the distinction of the regency of Anne?
5. What was the ambition of Charles VIII, and what series of wars sapped the resources of France and hindered Italy's development?
6. Note the prosperity under Louis XII. What wars did he wage and what did they do for France? What was the League of Cambray?
7. The reign of Francis I marks the beginning of modern France. Trace the course of events to the period of Henry II.
8. The transitional period of Henry II. What persecutions

did he institute? What part did he take in the Smalkaldic War? What did France gain and lose in the Wars of Henry?

9. Who were the Guises? What civil war arose and continued for 32 years?

10. France was nearly ruined by the Valois Kings. Who was the last of that line? What was the War of the Three Henry's?

11. *Henry of Navarre*, by Willert.

12. What reorganization and international designs developed during the reign of Henry IV?

13. Disorder followed the assassination of Henry IV, and the States-General was convened in 1614. Richelieu's abilities attracted attention. To what eminence was France raised by this great statesman and by what measures? How did he turn the Thirty Years' War from a religious to a political contest? Crushing opposition to central authority how did he make possible the absolutism of Louis XIV?

14. Richelieu. Lodge's *Cardinal Richelieu*.

15. Descriptions of the period by Dumas in *The Three Musketeers* and *Marguerite de Valois*.

ENGLAND.

Having traced events in France to the Peace of Westphalia, but leaving the discussion of the Thirty Years' War as a separate topic, we return to the beginning of the period to note the movements in England. The student will remember that our last studies in this State brought us to the close of

the Hundred Years' War. We must keep in mind the general character of the period as we have thus far studied the conditions under the Renaissance and Reformation. The various forces in Western Europe would seem to produce nothing but confusion, but as these forces are clearly understood, and the events properly related, we shall see how they all labored together towards modern conditions. The progress of this period, and more especially the conditions produced that determined the greater modern progress, seemed at times to be utterly lost in the stress of war. But such was not the case. Higher ideals were struggling with mighty forces, and while at times were apparently lost in the turmoil, they emerged from it all eventually with a true democracy established, a settledness in religion and a marvelous extension of culture. In the midst of such restlessness, intrigue and conflict, the Age of Elizabeth is to appear. England's Golden Age in literature and her high political position, and the theory of the Divine Right of Kings comes to its doom. It is therefore important that we see the direction of these tendencies working to the one great end of a purer democracy, greater political and religious liberty and a larger civilization.

Questions and Topics for Study.

This period falls into four general divisions:

1. The Wars of the Roses. The idea had become fixed that the crown was the property of a family.

(a) Between what houses were these wars waged, what were the causes and what kings were involved?

(b) By whom were the two houses united at the close of these wars?

(c) What were the positive results?

(d) Period of the Wars of the Roses. Bulwer-Lytton's *Last of the Barons*.

(e) Shakespeare's *Henry VI* and *Richard III*.

2. Tudor Supremacy.

"The chief result of the Wars of the Roses was the complete humbling before the throne of both Parliament and nobility." Thus the way was opened for absolutism.

(a) What kings reigned during this period?

(b) What were the policies of Henry VII?

(c) What were the leading events in the reign of Henry VIII? How did his measures impoverish England and check the new era?

(d) Under whom came the Catholic reaction and what was the character of her reign?

(e) Shakespeare's *Henry VIII*.

(f) Time of Edward VI. *The Prince and the Pauper*, by Mark Twain.

3. The Elizabethan Age.

From a defenceless and devastated condition, rent by economic, religious and political ruptures, England in this period makes a vast advance in politics and religion, industrial stability and the creation of a glorious literature. This is the most fascinating age of English history.

(a) What line did Elizabeth represent? What were her religious policies and her attitude to Puritanism?

(b) What series of events brought to an end Catholic monarchy? What Queen was the leading figure?

(c) The Armada. Creasy's *Decisive Battles*.

(d) The Golden Age. What great names belong to this period in creating its marvelous literature in poetry and prose?

4. The passing of Divine Right.

"Two contests of divine right of kings with democracy and of religious freedom with intolerance, run through the entire period, and to them attaches the chief significance of the first Stuart reigns."

(a) Whom did Elizabeth name as her successor? How did his conduct stimulate opposition and plots?

(b) What was Raleigh's connection with State affairs?

(c) Who followed James? What wars belong to this period and how did they issue? What great document was added to the English Constitution?

(d) What interest attaches to the Long Parliament, and what was the Grand Remonstrance?

(e) Trace the events of the civil war to the doom of divine right, bringing to a close the period in which England "had fought her great battles of democracy and conscience."

GERMANY.

We return to the beginning of the period to trace the events in this State from the point that we left them at the fall of Constantinople. The student should review the conditions of the Holy Roman Empire of that period and the beginning of the reign of Frederick III.

The period falls into three sections.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. The reign of Frederick III.

(a) What were his ambitions regarding the House of Hapsburg?

(b) What was the general character of his reign and to what House at his death did the imperial dignity pass?

2. The Reign of Maximilian I.

(a) What was his great peace measure? What occasioned the Imperial Chamber and the Aulic Council?

(b) In what wars did he engage, and what was his attitude to the Reformation?

3. From the Accession of Charles V to the Peace of Westphalia.

For the period of Charles V consult Johnson's *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, pp. 129-252.

(a) The character of Charles.

(b) His great aim. "At the beginning of his reign Charles set before himself three great tasks—to hold a general council of the Church for its purification, to lead a crusade against the Turks and to raise the Holy Roman Empire to its ancient glory."

(c) What resulted from his wars with France?

(d) What was his connection with the Council of Trent?

(e) Why did he abdicate the crown, and how well did he succeed in accomplishing his three tasks?

(f) Trace the Catholic Reaction to the Peace of Westphalia.

ITALY.

Two things stand out prominently in this period of Italian history—her preeminence in culture, and her lack of national unity. The former of these two facts was clearly indicated in our study of the Renaissance. In this she led all Europe, developing her culture in the midst of political turmoil. At the epoch of the French invasions "Italy was the most prosperous as well as the most enlightened and civilized country in Europe. Its opulent and splendid cities were the admiration of all visitors from the less favored countries of the North."

But she was devoid of national unity, her political history consisting of that of various cities and States. While far in advance in culture of the other nations, yet when compared with them politically her inferiority presented a pathetic picture. "The country was made up of discordant States. Venice was ambitious of conquest; and the pontiffs in this period, to the grief of all true friends of religion, were absorbed in Italian politics, being eager to carve out principalities for their relatives."

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. To the breaking up of the Venetian League.

(a) Describe a City-State under the control of an absolute ruler.

(b) When did foreign intervention begin, and to what call did Charles VIII of France respond? Headed by Venice how strong was the opposition to Charles? Note the importance of this invasion to the French in coming in contact with the culture of the Italian Renaissance then at its height.

(c) What was the influence of the Medici family in Florence? Why did Florence not join the Venetian League?

(d) What was the political situation when Savonarola became prominent. What was the character of his Constitution and why did he meet with bitter opposition?

(e) Savonarola. Clark's *Savonarola, His Life and Times*.

(f) Florence in the time of Lorenzo de Medici. George Eliot's *Romola*.

(g) Trace the events from the revolt against Florentine supremacy to the breaking up of the Venetian League.

2. French Invasions under Louis XII.

Note the events of the three Italian Wars and the various complications. In the end in what state did it leave Italy, what did the Holy League accomplish, and what became of French designs?

3. Spanish rule.

(a) How was this supremacy gained?

(b) What was the influence of Spain upon Italy in commerce and intellectual culture?

SPAIN AND THE NETHERLANDS.

The great importance of this period to the world lay in certain inventions and discovery. The use of gunpowder and the compass and the invention of printing with movable type by Gutenberg were revolutionary in their various fields.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. From the rise of Spanish power to Charles I.

(a) What effected the union of Castile and Aragon?

(b) In what way did the conquest of Granada contribute to Spain's great prestige in Europe?

(c) State the principal facts bearing upon the discovery of America, and the measure defining the territory each country might claim.

(d) What were the other conquests of Ferdinand?

(e) What was the distinction of Charles I?

2. From Philip II to the close of the period. From the death of Charles dates the decline of Spain.

(a) When did Spain come into possession of the Netherlands, and when did they revolt?

(b) When were the Philippine Islands taken, and how long after that was the Spanish naval power destroyed by the English?

(c) What in the policies of Philip II and Philip III contributed to the decline of Spain?

(d) Under whose reign did Spain suffer the loss of Portugal and the Netherlands, at the close of what war?

(e) The Dutch struggle for liberty. Motley's *Rise of the Dutch Republic*.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Inasmuch as this great war, attended with far-reaching consequences, involved so many nations: Germans, Swedes, Danes, French, it will be well for the student to review the political situation of these various countries at the beginning of the war (1618). The great battles with the exception of one were fought on German soil. It began as a contest between the

Catholic and Protestant princes of Germany and involved nearly all the States of the Continent, but finally the religious significance faded away and it "degenerated at last into a bitter and cruel struggle for political power and extension of Territory." The war may be divided into three periods or stages.

Questions.

The following works are recommended: Gindely's *History of the Thirty Years' War*. *History of All Nations*, vols. xii, xiii. Three of Schiller's great dramas are based upon the events of the war: *Wallenstein's Camp*, *Wallenstein's Death* and *The Piccolomini*.

1. The First Period (1618-1629). The Bohemian Conflict.

(a) What incident in Donauworth precipitated the struggle?

(b) What were the Catholic successes, what political issues were involved and by 1625 what powers had interfered?

(c) What was the distinction of Wallenstein in the conflict?

(d) What was the significance of the Edict of Restitution, and what would its execution have meant for Protestantism?

2. The Second Period (1629-1632).

(a) What were the political conditions in Sweden, and what considerations led it to interfere in the war?

(b) What were the successes of Gustavus and how did the fall of Magdeburg involve neutral powers?

(c) The fall of Magdeburg. Wakeman's *European History*, 88-90.

Note that with Gustavus the religious element of the war disappears.

3. The Third Period (1632-1648).

It is during this period that the influence of Richelieu became more definitely felt.

(a) How did the death of Wallenstein affect German interests in the war?

(b) What interest had France in the war and with whom did she become allied?

(c) What effect did the French-Swedish victories have upon the war?

(d) When was the Peace of Westphalia signed and how did its terms affect the various States and Catholic and Protestant territory?

The cruelties of this long war beggar description. "The Treaty of Westphalia marks the real breaking up of the old Empire. The pope refused to sanction the treaty, but this fact

was set aside by both the Catholics and Protestants, and at this time the direct influence of the pope in European politics ceases. The House of Hapsburg lost the preponderance which it had enjoyed since the time of Charles V. The machinery of the Empire still remained; there was still a nominal emperor and the Diet still met. But the real empire now became almost purely Austrian and the German States no longer dreamed of union, but were all governed by their princes with all the powers of kings."

The Chart.

Having noted the great events of this period it will be well to gather up the leading facts and relations by the Chart. Note the length of the period. This review will enable us to appreciate the great importance of this period in religious and political development, and the mighty struggles that ensued. We should see by what processes the religious revolution was brought about and what it involved in these European conflicts. The developments in each State should be carefully noted, and then the international relations. At the close of the Thirty Years' War we should have a pretty clear conception of the historic situation at the end of this first great period of the Modern Era.

From Peace of Westphalia to French Revolution

France

England

<p><u>Absolutism of Louis XIV, 1643-1715.</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Central European figure. 2. Huguenots. Edict of Nantes revoked. 3. Wars of Louis. Devolution, on Holland, 1672, Pugsburg League, 1688, Spanish Succession, 1701-1713, Peace of Utrecht, 1713. <p><u>An Age of Culture.</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. National Academy of Art. 2. Literature. Descartes, Pascal, Fenelon, LaFontaine, Racine, Moliere. <p><u>Failure of Absolutism</u></p>		<p><u>Commonwealth and Protectorate</u> 1649-1659. House of Commons supreme. Cromwell Lord Protectorate. Talents. <u>Restoration, 1660-1688.</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Charles II, 1660-1685. Habeas Corpus Act. 2. James II, 1685-1688. Rebellion, revolution. <p><u>From William and Mary to Queen Anne.</u> 1689-1714. Bill of Rights. War of Spanish Succession. England and Scotland united.</p> <p><u>Culture, Milton, Bunyan, Dryden, Newton, Swift, Steele, Addison, Pope, Locke.</u></p> <p><u>House of Hanover</u></p>	
<p><u>Regency of Philip and Louis XV.</u> 1715-1774. From the war of Polish Succession to end of Seven Years' War.</p> <p><u>Louis XVI, 1774-1792.</u></p> <p><u>Turgot's policies. The Third Estate. Legislative Assembly. The King executed.</u></p> <p><u>Conditions Leading to the Revolution.</u> Economic, social, judicial. The awakening by such men as Rousseau.</p> <p><u>Northern Europe</u></p>		<p><u>George I, 1714-1727.</u> Walpole first minster. War with Spain</p> <p><u>George II, 1727-1760.</u> War of Austrian Succession. Pitt prime minister. British Indian empire</p> <p><u>George III, 1760-1788.</u> American Independence, 1775-1781. Religion. Literature, Art, Science, Discovery. Wesleys, Hume, Gray, Hogarth, Watt.</p> <p><u>Austria and Netherlands</u></p>	
<p><u>Prussia</u> From Frederick William, 1640-88, to Frederick the Great, 1740-86. Seven Years War. Partition of Poland.</p>	<p><u>Russia</u> From Tartar domination to Peter the Great. Northern War. From Peter, 1682-1725, to Catherine II.</p>	<p><u>1648-1789</u></p> <p><u>Austria</u> 1. Leopold I, 1657-1705 2. Charles VI, 1711-40. Spanish Succession. 3. Maria Theresa and Joseph II, 1765-1790.</p> <p><u>Netherlands</u> Maritime supremacy. Republican Party. Spanish Netherlands. Given to Austria 1713. Rebellion, 1788.</p>	

FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

We pass from one great period to another. History is like a diversified landscape. The latter presents itself to the eye as valleys and elevations. We see the paths by which we rise from the plains to the heights, and pass again from the heights to other plains. So in the historic procedure there are the great landmarks, the high places, so to speak, toward which the nations have advanced by what may be called transition periods, or the lower levels of the world's course. They are all related and we must not overlook the valleys connecting the hills, as the historical eye rests upon the peaks, nor should we fail to see how the paths lead us from the lower levels to the grand summits. It is during periods of apparent quiet that conditions arise that issue in great stirring moments of revolution and reconstruction, and the race is brought to a new eminence. In the midst of what seems to be irrational destructiveness arise great principles that become the open pathways of human conduct—thus the contribution of one age or period to another, and in it all a great historic landscape showing the pathway of the nations. Hence the study of history is the cultivation of that intellectual vision and understanding so as to see this diversified landscape of our life and development in its greatest distances, and to discern the relations between plain and mountain peak, or the underlying causes of national and international conditions.

These observations are apropos to the new period upon which we enter. For nearly a century and a half the great

states of Europe are engaged in working out mighty problems and creating others, these leading to one of the most critical moments in modern history. For example, if Great Britain had done less than she did from Cromwell to the Georges she would not have accomplished what she did during the Napoleonic era; and if in France economic conditions and intellectual awakening had not developed as they did the French Revolution would not have arisen, and the situation would not have existed for the rise and achievements of Napoleon.

These studies are designed to call the attention of the student to these fundamental relations, and to leave it to the text books to supply the details of the history, while the charts indicate and relate the leading facts.

We have already called attention to the necessity of being familiar with important dates. They are the milestones of history. It is impossible to keep in mind every date and it is a question whether it is advisable to make the attempt. But every student should be familiar with the great dates up to this time, and that from the Peace of Westphalia to the French Revolution was a period of 141 years, or from 1648 to 1789. Note how all the facts of the chart are carried to this date.

FRANCE.

Feudalism has ceased to exist, and upon its destruction the events that lie before us logically follow. By the work of

Richelieu absolute rule was rendered possible. The Peace of Westphalia marks the passage from religious to political conflicts. "The Puritan Revolution, the French civil wars and the Thirty Years' War ended the primacy of religious questions and gave a forward impulse to the power of England, France, Sweden and Brandenburg. These untried rivals and others yet undistinguished are now to match forces. Might is to make right; and amid extraordinary international faithlessness, Sweden, Spain, Turkey and Austria are to go down in defeat before France, Russia, Brandenburg-Prussia and England."

The "mercantile system" in France illustrates the attempt during this period on the part of the nations to improve the condition of the middle class. In this, and also the development of culture, sovereigns and the people engage. Monarchy, supported by great armies, reached its zenith. It was a period of struggle and contest for the possession of thrones. While France gains the ascendancy over Austria England by the war of Spanish Succession restores the equilibrium. Then by the increasing power of Prussia, Eastern and Western Europe are bound together into a unitary system. Three events of the first importance belong to this period: first, the fall of Sweden and rise of Russia and Prussia; second, England's supremacy on the sea and her loss of the American colonies; third, the political and intellectual conditions leading to the French Revolution.

I. The Political Conditions of the Period of Louis XIV, 1643-1715.

It was the work of Cardinal Richelieu that paved the way for this period. By it Northern Europe was freed from Southern Europe. But while he made possible the glorious advances of France, he also made possible the despotism of her rulers who entered into the fruits of his labors in the absolute rule his work established.

1. The rule of Mazarin. To the Peace of Pyrenees (1659). Louis XIV was but five years old when this ambitious Italian statesman was placed in control of the government by Richelieu. During the rebellion of the *Fronde* (1648-1653) he was compelled to take refuge in Cologne. Upon his return, after the cessation of trouble, the restoration of monarchical power was expressed in his declaration, "I am the State."

2. Louis XIV, the central European figure.

The political conditions were such as to minister to his love of power, pomp and splendor, and to exercise the absolutism which distinguished his reign. During the fifty years of his personal rule he devoted eight hours daily to the work with which he occupied himself. To Colbert he committed the finances of the kingdom and thus protected himself against the depletion of his personal authority. Under Colbert's management canals were constructed, manufactures encouraged, the French navy developed and the militia organized.

The ambition of Louis and his people was to occupy the dominant place in Europe, which was then on the verge of a great change. Old religious ideals had passed away. The

theory of the divine right of kings was accepted in France, and Louis was quick to see how such an attitude would greatly enhance his ambitions, and made it a point to impress, not only upon his own subjects, but upon other European states the assumption that to God only was he responsible for his actions and administration. "The nation was bribed into silence by displays which revealed to the world the greatness of the Grand Monarch" and "all Europe was impressed by the dignity which resulted from the embodiment in one person of the grandeur of a great nation during this unparalleled reign." Great was the influence of Louis upon Europe which borrowed his language, and casting away the religious restraints of an earlier era abandoned itself to a gay and festive life. About Louis the nobility of the French court swarmed, pressing claims for kingly favor. Culture was encouraged, the king giving his patronage to poets, scholars and artists. Libraries were established, academies of art and science were founded and opportunities for astronomical observations provided. "The palace at Versailles, and its statues, fountains and gardens, furnished a pattern which all the rest of Europe aspired to copy. Everything there wore an artificial stamp, from the trimming of the trees to the etiquette of the ballroom. But there was a splendor and fascination which caused the French fashions, the French language and literature, with the levity and immorality which traveled in their company, to spread in the higher circles of the other European countries."

When Louis XIV came to the throne foreign conquest and Machiavellian conceptions were becoming dominant ideals,

and in his aggressions Louis acted under the impulse of the time. Germany divided into a host of sovereignties became a prey to his designs; he seized, under a shallow pretext, the Spanish Netherlands. His armies were mighty, but in his war on Holland, inspired by the manner in which the Dutch had thwarted him, he found himself at war with practically all Europe. His fleet was destroyed and France was impoverished and exhausted of her resources. The alliance against the king was too strong and permanent for any hope of conquering his enemies. Then followed his war of the Augsburg League, which League was secretly organized against him by continental Europe after his quarrel with the pope, the persecution of the Huguenots and the alienation of his allies, the Turks, Sweden and Poland. After ten years of conflict France was in a deplorable state, her coinage debased, taxes doubled and corruption supreme.

The War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713) again brought France into conflict with the nations. While Louis was forming a plan to divide Spain by treaty the Spanish king died, having at the last moment willed his kingdom to France, thus breaking faith with England and Holland. William III organized the Grand Alliance against France, and in May, 1702, a general war upon Louis was declared. For eleven years it was waged on the sea in America, Spain, Italy, in the Empire and the Netherlands. The king of France was vanquished and humbled. The peace of Utrecht (1713) recognized certain facts: "The rise of Prussia, Spain's choice of a king, the importance of France upon the continent and of Great

Britain's commercial and naval supremacy. It organized powerful states to control French ambition, but in vain forbade the alliance of France and Spain. Seventeenth century political questions were thus solved. In Louis' repulse and the disaster of Sweden and Turkey with the rise of England, Russia and Prussia, there came the complexities of a new century—the Franco-Prussian question, the Eastern question and the English-French rivalry in three continents. Louis XIV had dissipated all the resources which he had inherited."

II. An Age of Culture.

With the death of Louis XIV the first great section of the period came to a close. In the brilliancy and agitation of his reign a great impulse was given to things more abiding. It was a golden age in culture. In it Louis found that which would add to the glory of his reign. When he ascended the throne there was no French school of sculpture and painting, and a national academy was founded. In the department of painting Lebrun, Paussin and Champagne were brought forth, whose productions showed great merit.

It is in the realm of literature, however, that special interest attaches to the brilliancy of this period. At this time France had the honor of producing the intellect that should give birth to Modern Philosophy. Descartes opened up the new method in the realm of metaphysics. Setting aside all the disquisitions of the past this brilliant thinker worked out his system of "innate ideas," and by 1650 his doctrines were laying hold of

Europe. Pascal and Bossuet, the former by his polemical writings and the latter by the pulpit, gave the French language a new power. The science of education was developed by Fenelon, Boileau was the poetic critic of the time and La Fontaine wrote his tales and fables. The French drama was copied by Europe, and until the time of Wordsworth and Goethe maintained this supremacy. French comedy was originated by Moliere, and his plays take the highest rank among modern comedies.

These are among the contributions of the period that placed France in the forefront of Europe and made her king the central figure in European politics and society. Absolutism had its opportunity during this long reign, the second longest in modern times, but the artificiality of the period could not be long sustained.

III. The Period of Louis XV and Louis XVI.

Instead of taking up at this point the period in English history contemporaneous with that of Louis XIV it will be well for us to trace the movement in France to the period of the Revolution.

The death of Louis left the nation without a leader—disunited and in a certain state of disintegration. This period is to witness the failure of absolutism. Louis declared that he had been too fond of war and his last counsel to his successor was not to imitate him in that, but to lighten the burdens of his people.

1. The regency of Philip and Louis XV, 1715-1774.

Europe now entered upon a transitional period characterized by such attitudes on the part of the people as to indicate that the sovereign was not supreme, that the divine right of kings was a myth, and the development of the idea that government was by the people.

Philip, the nephew of Louis XIV, and chairman of the council of regency for the child Louis XV, was made absolute regent. Under him vice in the court became flagrant. He favored religious toleration until it provoked so much opposition that he took the opposite course, persecuted the Protestants and drove many from the country. In the midst of financial disaster in connection with "the Mississippi bubble" Philip determined to re-establish the policy of absolutism. But he had already opposed the theory of divine right, and with the new vision of the French people but little strength could attach to the old policy.

2. The wars of Louis XV.

At the death of Philip, in 1723, European alliances were going to pieces, and uncertainty prevailed regarding the formation of new ones. Three wars distinguished this period: First, the War of Polish Succession, in which Spain allied herself with France in the attempt to place upon the throne of Poland the father-in-law of Louis XV. This was carried to a far-reaching significance in setting forth the danger that lay in an alliance between France and Spain, and especially in the at-

tempt to curtail Russia by placing Turkey in opposition to her. This gave new emphasis to the Eastern question and the balance of power which has had an increasing significance in its bearing upon European politics to the present time.

Second, the War of Austrian Succession, 1740. This war, opened by the claims of Frederick the Great of Prussia, became general and extended and, "during twenty-three years and under various names, decisively fought out the real questions of eighteenth century Europe—the balance of power and the ownership of the world's colonies." American interests were involved, and when England and France agreed to restore their conquests the American boundaries were left undetermined.

Third, the Seven Years' War, 1748-1756. In this war all Europe ranged itself against England and Prussia. France was defeated in India and America, at Minden and Rossbach. With the exception of France all the participants in this great war reaped some benefit, while to France it was disastrous.

3. Louis XVI. (1774-1792.)

Turgot, the ablest economist and French minister of the century, came to the leadership under Louis XVI, taking as his motto, "No repudiation, no loans, no increased taxes." His land tax upon all classes and other reforms secured the enmity of the nobility, and he was laid aside by the king.

In the midst of the war of American independence, Necker was the successor of Turgot. France's part in this war in-

creased the national debt a billion and a half francs. Necker fell under the queen's displeasure and was dismissed.

Then came the ministers of the queen, Marie Antoinette, who gained supremacy over the king. Under Calonne and Brienne, perplexities increased until a general demand was made for the "States-General" which was summoned by the king, May 1, 1789, when the indications of rebellion were apparent. "Thus absolutism acknowledged its incapacity and in appealing to the people ascribed to them the source of political power." The winter of 1788-89 found France in a state of bankruptcy and famine and about to enter a period of revolution, terror and death that should shake the nation to its very center.

This brief outline of Absolutism and its significant failure is designed to bring forward the forces operative during this period, to point out the direction of tendencies, the elements of strength and weakness of the nation, and the end to which, under various conditions, it must inevitably drift. This will appear with still greater clearness when we take up the causes of the Revolution in our study of that period.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The following works will be found very helpful: *The Ancient Régime*, by Taine. Arthur Young's *Travels in France*, giving the situation during the period from 1787-1789. Adams' *Growth of the French Nation*. Perkins' *France Under the Regency*, and *France Under Louis XV.* *European*

History, by Hassall, Chs. II, IV, VI, X, XII, XIV. Gibbins' *History of Commerce in Europe*. James' *Great Commanders of Europe*.

1. What caused the rebellion of the Fronde?
2. What did France gain by the Peace of Pyrenees?
3. State the leading achievements of Colbert.
4. What was done by Marquette, Joliet and LaSalle in the Mississippi Valley?
5. What caused the failure in French colonization?
6. What was the Edict of Nantes and why annulled?
7. What was the War of Devolution?
8. What caused the War of the Augsburg League, and what were the terms of the Treaty of Ryswick?
9. What countries engaged in the War of the Spanish Succession, and what was granted by the Peace of Utrecht?
10. State some of the plays of Moliere.
11. The Huguenots. *The Little Huguenot*, by Max Pemberton. *The Huguenot*, by G. P. R. James.
12. Who were the Jansenists, and why persecuted?
13. What bank did John Law establish and what consequences attended the scheme?
14. What was the state of things left by the War of Polish Succession?
15. What brought about the Seven Years' War, and how were the States allied?
16. On what basis did Turgot favor a land tax?
17. Turgot. Say's Turgot.

18. What part did France take in the war of American independence?

19. Marie Antoinette. Saint Amand's *Marie Antoinette and the End of the Old Régime*.

20. Dumas' *The Man in the Iron Mask*. Who was he?

21. What significance attaches to Louis' call for the States-General, and what one great fact stands out in the study of this period?

ENGLAND.

In our last study of England we traced the history in English development from the Wars of the Roses to Cromwell and Charles I, and the doom of the divine right of kings. It carried us, including England's part in the Thirty Years' War, to the Peace of Westphalia. A review of English institutions and the growth of English liberties will invest our present study with large interest, while the study of the Commonwealth should be of peculiar interest to Americans who have inherited the liberties struggled for and gained by our English kinsmen. It was because the American Revolution had its great antecedent on English soil and the principles of liberty were established in the mother country that a new chapter was added to this great development, already familiar to the British people, when America declared her independence. Living as we do so essentially in the history of this struggle for liberty, and being so vitally related to it in our English connections, the story of the organization of the English republic upon the fall of the monarchy should be peculiarly instructive.

I. *The Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-1660.*

We have already seen the conditions in France during this same period. While Absolutism was holding sway there under Louis XIV, the English Monarchy was already abolished, the doom of divine right declared. The latter was a longer time in taking hold of the French people. The brief period from the time of the fall of the monarchy to the Restoration was one of great significance in its influence upon English ideas and policies. It was an era that was calculated to leave a definite impression for all time for "the epoch of the Commonwealth of England is one of the great links in general historical progress," a progress in those liberties into which we have come and the boast of twentieth century civilization. The importance that attaches to this moment is, therefore, not to be measured by the period of the Commonwealth and Protectorate but by the abiding influence which it exercised.

1. Government by the House of Commons.

The Rump Parliament consisted of those members in sympathy with the revolutionists. The House of Lords was abolished as useless and dangerous, while Royalty was declared to be dangerous, burdensome and inimical to the freedom and safety of the people.

2. The Council of State.

To this body, consisting of forty-one members, was committed the administration of public affairs, who were required

to sign a document approving the king's trial and the abolition of the House of Lords. But the new government had its trials and problems. Refusing to listen to petitions of a democratic and socialistic nature, it was looked upon as tyrannous. Many royalists fled from the country. Scottish commissioners who had opposed the execution of Charles I declared the son of Charles king, provided he would take the Scottish Covenant, while the royalists of Ireland promised him their support on condition of an independent parliament and a free Roman Church. He accepted the latter.

3. War with Ireland and Scotland.

The proclamation of King Charles II sent Cromwell into Ireland and massacres followed. Fleeing to Scotland, Charles took the Covenant. The war was carried into Scotland, but Charles was crowned at Scone. Invading England, Charles was defeated and fled to France, and then followed the conquest of Scotland and Ireland by Cromwell's general, Monk.

With these troubles out of the way the Commonwealth now gave renewed attention to maritime interests. Portugal was punished for assistance rendered to Rupert, the Navigation Act, with serious consequences to the Dutch, was passed, and the war with the Dutch resulted in the defeat of the latter.

4. Cromwell, the Lord Protector.

The enemies of Cromwell charged him with kingly ambitions. The Parliament was charged with neglecting the wel-

fare of the nation, for which there was much foundation in the oppression imposed and the use made of their office for personal ends. The army demanded the dissolution of Parliament, and in the midst of passing a bill of dissolution Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament and on the same day the Council of State was dissolved. This was followed by a new Council of State and the Little Parliament, which was of short duration.

In less than a week (Dec. 16, 1653) Cromwell was made Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, followed by a new government and constitution. New troubles arose with the new Parliament and Cromwell was offered the title of king, which he refused.

His method of administration has been both praised and condemned, but the fact remains that under his rule "the country prospered and Cromwell was respected as but few English kings have been."

Foreign affairs were handled by him with characteristic vigor and skill. He destroyed the Spanish fleet and took Jamaica, and in the following spring Dunkirk fell into his hands.

While the contemporaries of Cromwell disagree as to his character they uniformly declare that he was the greatest man of his time. Says Lord Clarendon, "To subdue three nations, which perfectly hated him, to an entire obedience to all his dictates; to awe and govern those nations by an army that was indevoled to him and wished his ruin, was an instance of a very prodigious address. But his greatness at home was

but a shadow of the glory he had abroad." Says Lingard, the Catholic historian of England, "Some writers have maintained that Cromwell dissembled in religion as well as in politics . . . But this supposition is contradicted by the uniform tenor of his life."

There was much in Cromwell that reminds us of such generals as Julius Cæsar and Napoleon, but in the temper and spirit of his ambitions he should forever be distinguished from the latter.

II. *The Restoration, 1660-1668.*

Upon the death of Cromwell his son Richard was proclaimed protector by the Council. It required but a few months to show that he was incapable of dealing with difficulties as did his father, and at the expiration of eight months he was asked to resign.

The Rump Parliament was again convened, but taking up the old quarrel with the army the latter closed the House and assumed the government of affairs.

1. Accession of Charles II.

In the meantime Monk, Cromwell's general in Scotland, with his troops was planning the restoration of the Stuarts. Entering London with seven thousand men he called for a free Parliament which convened at Westminster in 1660, and in this convention Charles II was proclaimed king of England, Scotland and Ireland by both houses. Thus the monarchy was restored in the Stuart line.

The head of the nation was a man utterly devoid of moral principle and of profligate character. The army was disbanded, vengeance was taken on the judges of his father, two thousand Presbyterian ministers were ejected from their pulpits, John Bunyan, author of "Pilgrim's Progress," was imprisoned for twelve years, and Dunkirk sold to France. Then followed, in 1665-66, two great calamities, the Great Plague and the Great Fire, in London, but neither these nor anything else had any effect upon the profligate life of the king.

In the war with the Dutch, caused by commercial rivalry, the Thames was blockaded by the Dutch fleet, the disgrace of which rested heavily upon the nation, and the Dutch dictated their own peace terms. From 1667-78 occurred the "Cabal" Ministry, the war with Holland, Declaration of Indulgence and its recall, the Test Act, Danby's Ministry and the "Papist Plot."

In 1679 was passed the *Habeas Corpus Act*, which provided against the imprisonment of subjects before being brought to trial, or the presentation of proof in open court that their confinement was legal.

At this time the party names *Whig* and *Tory* came into use. The former is a Scotch word meaning sour milk and was applied to insurgent Presbyterian ministers; the latter signified the court supporters and originally meant Romanist outlaws, or robbers in the bogs of Ireland.

2. Upon the death of Charles, James II succeeded to the throne (1685-1688).

Monmouth's rebellion, in his attempt to seize the crown, was crushed. James at once instituted arbitrary measures in his policy of restoring the old religion and destroying civil liberty. Protestant dissenters were treated with cruelty. To advance his own scheme he issued a Declaration of Indulgence, and in 1688 committed seven bishops to the Tower who had signed a petition protesting against the order that a second Declaration of Indulgence be read in the Churches.

Two things stand out prominently in this period of the first two kings of the Restoration. The first is the strong and determined attitude of the English people in demanding good government and their insistence upon their rights in affairs both political and religious. The spirit of the Magna Charta was operative in this attitude and it spoke loudly to the people from a distance of nearly five hundred years. The other fact is "that a profligate monarch cannot corrupt a sober, industrious and liberty-loving people. Notwithstanding the excesses of Charles II the great mass of the people were prosperous during his reign, and noteworthy progress was made in manufactures, commerce, science and literature."

3. The Revolution of 1688 and the Accession of William and Mary (1689-1694).

Mary and Anne, the two daughters of James, were married to Protestants, the former to William, Prince of Orange, and the latter to George, Prince of Denmark. William landed at Torbay with fourteen thousand men and James fled to his

cousin Louis XIV, never to return. The Parliament placed the crown upon William and Mary as joint sovereigns, and then a Parliamentary committee drew up the Declaration of Rights "which recited the illegal acts of James, his abdication and the determination of Lords and Commons to assert England's ancient rights and liberties."

Having formed the Grand Alliance, William declared war against France (1689), but before he could prosecute it the rebellion of the Jacobites in Scotland and Ireland required his attention. The war in Ireland was brought to a close by the Battle of the Boyne, where he met the army of James, reinforced by Louis XIV. The army was routed and James again fled to France. While these things were proceeding in Ireland, Louis XIV stirred up the Jacobites in England and the English met with a naval defeat at Beachy Head, but in the Battle of La Hogue the French met with a crushing defeat and the conspiracy of the Jacobites was stamped out.

It was during this period that Parliament embodied the Declaration of Rights in the Bill of Rights "which established the right of the people through their representatives to depose the king, to change the order of succession and to set on the throne whomsoever they would. This bill, having received the signature of the king, put an end forever to all claim of divine right. This act of Parliament, the third and final of the great steps which England has taken in the formation of her Constitution, rounded out and completed the provisions for English liberty partly set forth in the Magna Charta of 1215 and the Petition of Right, of 1628." It is by these great docu-

ments, expressions of the demands of the people, that we trace the development in English institutions and liberties, and can see to what point the people had advanced in their democracy, and how within less than a century from the time of the last of these great steps England was to meet with an exemplification of her own principles on American soil.

The greatness of William was universally recognized, notwithstanding the unpopularity that existed because he was a foreigner. But no English sovereign more sincerely and energetically sought the best interests of England with so little personal consideration involved.

4. Queen Anne, 1702-1714.

By the Act of Settlement (1701), one of the leading events of William's closing years, Anne, the sister of Mary, succeeded to the throne. During her reign the War of the Spanish Succession was waged, which has already received our attention. Marlborough defeated the French at Blenheim and Malplaquet and seized the Netherlands.

In 1707 occurred the union of England and Scotland, a complete political union in which the Scottish independent parliament was given up, the kingdom to be known as Great Britain, and the Union Jack the new national flag.

Bolingbroke, the foreign secretary, was the most prominent figure of the Tory ministry. He was a party to the Treaty of Utrecht. "This treaty, by which England dishonorably deserted Austria, was not the act of the nation but of a perfidious

minister who was the secret foe of the Protestant succession and favored the return of the Jacobites."

Thus from the time of the establishment of the Restoration we have briefly traced the events distinguishing the new developments which mark the important advances made by this great nation. During this period of a little over half a century the tendency has been upward throughout in the establishment of those principles which have placed Great Britain in the forefront of European States and the passing on of her great institutions to her colonies.

5. The development in culture.

We cannot do much more than give the names that represent this development. During the reign of Charles II appeared Bunyan's great work which has exercised such a profound religious influence upon the world, and in science the demonstrations of Sir Isaac Newton producing a revolution in scientific thought and investigation.

Between the Elizabethan Age and the Age of Anne as the connecting link was Milton, who is sometimes placed in the latter age. Pope was the representative poet of eighteenth century literature, but that which distinguished the period were prose writings. In philosophy Berkeley brought forth his Idealistic system and Locke his Empiricism. Literature was enriched by Dean Swift the satirist, Steel the journalist and Addison the critic "whose essays in the *Spectator* were the finest literary product of the age."

Questions and Topics for Study.

The following works will be found helpful to the student: Green's *Short History of the English People* is still the best general reference. *Old South Leaflets* Nos. 27, 28, 62, 63. Kendall's *Source Book of English History* is especially valuable. *Oliver Cromwell's Life and Letters* by Carlyle. *History of All Nations*.

1. What was the relation of the Council of State to Parliament?
2. What was the attitude of the Presbyterians to the Commonwealth and the Protector?
3. Why did Charles II ally himself at the first with Ireland rather than Scotland?
4. Who was Montrose and what was his design?
5. Were the massacres in Ireland justified?
6. What brought about the war with the Dutch? Note the successes of Blake.
7. Why did Cromwell dissolve the Parliament? Had he a right to do so, or was the act an arbitrary one?
8. Why did Cromwell refuse the title of king?
9. New Sects of the Commonwealth period. Gooch's *Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century*.
10. The character and work of Cromwell. Morley's *Cromwell*.
11. In what respects does Cromwell compare with Napoleon?
12. By what act did the new administration open under Charles II?
13. Who were the Nonconformists and why persecuted?

14. How does the commercial interest of the Dutch at this time compare with that of other states?

15. What was the "Cabal" and how was the title formed?

16. What were the terms of the Treaty of Dover?

17. What positions distinguished Whigs and Tories?

18. The Tory opposition. Swift's *Journal to Stella*.

19. What American territory came to England during this period?

20. What was the "Bloody Assizes" in the reign of James, and what forms did his tyranny assume?

21. Who were the Jacobites and what was the ground of their revolution?

22. When was the Bank of England established?

23. Between what states was the Peace of Ryswick concluded, and to what terms did Louis XIV accede?

24. Pope's poem, *The Essay on Man*, illustrating the idea of his time that "the proper study of mankind is man."

25. Public and domestic life at the close of the seventeenth century. Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*.

26. With how many English rulers was Louis XIV contemporary?

III. House of Hanover.

This period of English history was one of general prosperity and an increasing development in good government. Special importance attaches to the period because of the attitude of the British people to those things that related to the independence of her American colonies, and because of the loss

of this territory itself. It was a moment of unusual significance to Britain, America and the world at large that such independence was gained. It meant that not only did a new nation take its place among the states of the world, but under peculiar conditions giving the idea of *liberty* a larger meaning that should receive constant emphasis in the new state and carried to the world at large, and also, and particularly, the establishment of a form of government that should develop into the greatest political success in that form of government in history. In other words this separation from the mother country was the most significant fact in English history of this period which was destined to exercise a peculiar influence upon British thought and policies for all time.

1. George I, 1714-1727.

In coming to his throne he represented the two essentials of the English people, *i. e.*, Protestantism and civil liberty. The following questions will bring forward the chief points of his reign:

(1.) In what way did the *Act of Settlement* of the reign of William determine this new line of sovereigns and what did it secure from a religious point of view?

(2.) What attempts were made by the Pretender, James Edward?

(3.) What alliance was made with Holland in 1716 and why?

(4.) What was the attitude of many of the ministers, in-

cluding Walpole, to George's involving England in the German wars? Note that it was a period of great complications in European affairs.

(5.) What was the South Sea Bubble, what did the company assume and what did its failure involve? To what extent did Walpole save the situation?

(6.) To whom did the king commit the affairs of government, and who established the prime-ministership?

(7.) What were the closing incidents of this reign, and how would you estimate the abilities of this monarch?

2. George II, 1727-1760.

He had the advantage over his father in that he could speak English fluently, but in his evil ways his father still lived. He had the support of the clever Queen Carolina, which added to the popularity of his reign. She took an active part in the affairs of state, and unconsciously to the king directed his ideas and policies.

(1.) On what point especially did the king and Walpole disagree?

(2.) What brought about the war with Spain and how did it result in the fall of Walpole?

(3.) What part did George II take in the War of Austrian Succession, and what was the particular gain to England?

(4.) By what battle was the rebellion in Scotland crushed?

(5.) What were the peculiar characteristics of Pitt, and by what qualities did he gain the admiration of the people?

(6.) What part did Washington take in the border warfare in America with the French, and what war at that time broke out in Europe with George II supporting Frederick the Great?

(7.) Who was practically the absolute ruler of Britain during this time of war and unrest? When did Canada become a British possession?

(8.) What two rival companies were established in India, and what outrages did Clive avenge during the Seven Years' War? What did it decide for England in regard to India?

3. George III, 1760-1788.

This sovereign was but twenty-two years of age when he succeeded his grandfather to the throne, and while of an upright and conscientious disposition was obstinate and self-willed and governed by prejudices. The war with France was still in progress. Much that happened during this period in connection with the American colonies will be considered in fuller detail in our American studies.

(1.) What precipitated the resignation of Pitt?

(2.) What was the Stamp Act and when was it passed? In what way did it arouse the alarm and opposition of the colonists? What was Pitt's recommendation and what was the result? What great orator supported Pitt?

(3.) Who was nominally at the head of the ministry when the tea tax was levied, and what act precipitated in Parliament the Five Acts which not only endangered the liberties of the

colonists but directly violated the principles of the English Constitution?

(4.) When did the Revolution break out, and when was the Declaration of Independence drawn up?

(5.) What effect did the French Alliance have upon England, and how in his last speech did Lord Chatham counsel the House of Lords?

(6.) In what other conflicts was England engaged at this time?

(7.) When was the treaty signed in which England surrendered her claims in America?

Civilization During This Period.

(1.) The religious awakening. The moral and religious life of England was in the decline when John and Charles Wesley were instrumental in creating a religious revival that not only swept over England but crossed the sea to America. It planted schools, checked intemperance, quickened the national Church and gave an impetus to art and industry.

(2.) Literature and art. "For the last fifty years enthusiasm or naturalness in literature had been considered in bad taste. But gradually, through the great actor Garrick's revival of Shakespeare's plays from 1741 to 1776, the dull imaginations of the age were stirred," and thus the second half of the century paved the way for the great literary awakening of the following century. Gray and Goldsmith developed the tendency to romanticism in their two great works. David

Hume produced an epoch-making work in philosophy, Gibbon wrote the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, while Adam Smith was the author of the great economic treatise, *Wealth of Nations*.

In art Hogarth, Reynolds and Gainsborough depicted life both in street scenes and beautiful portraits.

(3.) In scientific discovery and mechanical inventions the industrial development was brought about by Hargreaves, Compton, Arkwright and Watt, the latter's steam engine being the most remarkable invention of the age.

NORTHERN EUROPE.

International politics of Europe were based on the balance of power between states, which became a still more serious question when in this period two new powers appeared upon the stage of political action. These were Russia and Prussia. The rise of these states, taking their places among the great powers, at once became a new and important factor in the political situation of Europe relative to the fundamental question of the balance of power. This will readily appear when we note how "Prussia became the rival of Austria for supremacy in the Holy Roman Empire; Russia pushed the Turks to the Black Sea; Sweden was relegated to her peninsular possessions across the Baltic, and France, which at the close of the Thirty Years' War was the strongest military power of Europe and was preparing for expansion eastward, was effectually barred therefrom. Even in England this idea of the

balance of power became a living force, and the English formed alliances with the northern states in order to prevent either France or Austria from becoming too rich and powerful. This system, founded on diplomacy and the dynastic interests of the chief sovereigns of Europe, was pursued at any cost."

I. *The Rise of Prussia.*

One effect of the Thirty Years' War was the disintegration of Germany, broken up into little hostile states. With the tremendous strength of France, the most powerful state of Europe, and the growing power of Russia, Europe was sadly in need of a northern power to prevent the ravages these states might make. It was a serious moment for European interests, and Frederick William the Great arose to meet this need, to offset these possibilities, by the rise of Brandenburg. He organized his army and strengthened the government and by his shrewd policies made Brandenburg the most powerful German state of the north, and for many years controlled the relations of the powers.

So well were the policies of this sovereign conducted that in time of war and peace and especially during the French-Swedish War, 1700, Frederick assumed at Königsburg the royal crown as Frederick I of Prussia. Thus was founded the Kingdom of Prussia and its sovereign "attained the level of other independent sovereigns, and from this time Brandenburg-Prussia had to be reckoned with among the great European powers." From this national development we can see

how the rise of a state determines the moves on the political checker-board, and how essentially these factors enter into the history of human events.

II. Russia.

In the days before she was overrun by Mongul hordes in the thirteenth century, Russia had sustained a good government and developed considerable culture, but her subjection for two centuries to Tartar domination was attended with ruinous results. Under Ivan the Great (1462-1505) and Ivan the Terrible (1533-1584) this Tartar domination was weakened. Then came the period of anarchy and the disorganization of government until Peter the Great (1682-1725), the principal founder of Russian civilization, "whose high aims and noble ambitions were strangely mingled with the lowest moral ideals, who was to revolutionize the institutions of Russia and start her upon the path of modern progress." With his advanced ideas he began the reconstruction of Russian society, and to this end visited other countries to discover their methods and take from them such persons as would be capable of improving Russian industrial conditions.

He was defeated at Narva in the War of the North, but annihilated the army of Charles XII at Pultowa, while Sweden was driven from the eastern shores of the Baltic. So that while Sweden fell from her high position among the northern nations, "Russia emerged from comparative obscurity to the position of a great state." Thus we see the rise of Prussia

and Russia during this period and the sense in which their appearance was calculated to complicate the politics of Europe in maintaining the balance of power.

Questions.

The student is referred to the following helpful works: Hassall's *Balance of Power*, pp. 1-24, 107-279, 298-331, 351-393. *Frederick the Great*, by Carlyle. *Life of Peter the Great*, by Waliszewski. Louisa Mühlbach's *Old Fritz and the New Era* dealing with Frederick the Great. *With Fire and Sword*, by Sienkiewicz. Tolstoi's *Ivan the Terrible*. *History of All Nations*.

1. What position did the Great Elector take in the war between Sweden and Poland, in 1655?
2. What was his action regarding the Prussian diet of 1663, and in what manner did he employ Huguenot exiles to his advantage?
3. What was the issue of the French-Swedish war in the increase of the Elector's power?
4. What were the leading qualities of Frederick the Great, and what effect did they have upon Prussian interests?
5. How did Frederick precipitate the War of Austrian Succession, and with whom did he join in the struggle?
6. In what condition did Prussia emerge from the Seven Years' War, and in what degree did it enhance her prestige among European states?
7. What economic reforms did Frederick institute and in what condition did his death leave Prussia?

8. What special advantage accrued to Russia in the capture of Azov in the reign of Peter the Great?

9. What were some of Peter's reforms, educational and religious, and when did he transfer the government to St. Petersburg?

10. What was Peter's object regarding Sweden in the War of the North and what alliance did he form?

11. What were the moral and intellectual qualities of Catherine the Great, of Russia, and how did she employ the latter?

12. What was Catherine's ambition in the conquest of Crimea?

13. How did the geographical position of Poland enter into the matter of her partition, and what reason did she advance to Prussia and Austria for that partition? How much fell to Russia?

AUSTRIA AND THE NETHERLANDS.

Our studies, in dealing with the other states, have indicated the importance of the Low Countries in matters of commerce and as the battlefield of Europe. The relations have been brought forward quite definitely, and it is only necessary that the leading events be distinguished as suggested by the following questions:

I. Austria.

The following works will be found helpful: *Austria*, by

J. S. C. Abbot. The internal reforms of Maria Theresa and Joseph II are splendidly set forth by Sidney Whitman's *Austria* (story of the nations). *History of All Nations*, Vols. XII, XIII, XIV, XV.

1. In what condition did the Thirty Years' War leave the Empire?

2. What were the claims of Leopold that brought on the War of Spanish Succession?

3. What precipitated the War of the Austrian Succession at the death of Charles VI?

4. What were the qualities of Maria Theresa and what characterized her regency? What were some of her reforms?

5. Endowed with excellent qualities what caused most of the plans of Joseph II to fail in his ambition to unify the provinces? What two things did he succeed in doing?

II. The Netherlands.

The Dutch history from 1672 to 1675 is brought out in Dumas' love romance, *The Black Tulip*. *Tales of Flemish Life*, by Hendrik Conscience give a lively representation of life in the Netherlands during this century. *History of All Nations*, Vols. XII, XIII, XIV.

In what art were the United Provinces recognized throughout Europe as masters?

2. What was their distinction as a maritime power?

3. When did the Republican party come to supremacy?

4. What power did DeWitt, the grand pensionary, control, and what led him into war with England?

5. Under what conditions was the republican party overthrown, and what House was restored?

6. What brought the Prince of Orange into such remarkable popularity and when did he succeed to the English throne?

7. What part did the Provinces take in the War of Austrian Succession?

8. In what respect did the geographical position of the Spanish Netherlands place them in an unfortunate way during the French wars?

9. When did they become an Austrian possession and was their condition improved?

10. What led them into revolt and what internal conditions favored their falling again into the hands of Austria?

11. In what respects were the Spanish Netherlands wronged by the United Provinces?

The Chart.

During this great and stirring period Europe has passed through many remarkable scenes. Established orders have been broken down and many radical changes have taken place. It will be well for the student to carefully review this whole procedure by the chart. It will in a brief time refresh the memory regarding the leading facts. By the means of the chart get a general view of the whole period, reconstructing it in the relations of the various states. In doing so it will become something of a historical picture, leaving a definite impression of the fundamental conditions of this period.



From the French Revolution to the Fall of Napoleon

French Revolution

1. *The National Assembly.*
The States-General. Constitution of 1791.
2. *The Monarchy.*
Louis XVI dethroned by the Girondists.
3. *Reign of Terror.*
Committee of Public Safety. War in Italy.
Robespierre and the work of the guillotine. Execution of Robespierre.

4. *The Convention.*
Thermidorians. Civil war and famine.
Political system. Appearance of Napoleon.
5. *The Directory.* *Napoleon's victories in Italy. English victories of 1796-97.*
Fall of the Republic, 1797.
Conquest of Egypt. The war in Palestine.
Fall of the Directory.

France

Napoleonic Era 1799-1815

England

1. *Under the Consulate. Constitution of 1799. Second coalition.*
Napoleon made Emperor, 1804.
2. *The New Empire.*
To the Peace of Tilsit, 1807.
Napoleon's conflict with the nations.
3. *Fall of Napoleon. Battle of Waterloo 1815*
Louis XVIII restored. Reconstruction.
Russia and Prussia

1. *Alliance with Austria, Spain, Holland and Prussia against France.*
2. *The work of Pitt. Union of Ireland 1801*
3. *Peace of Amiens, 1802, war renewed.*
4. *War with America 1812. Treaty of Ghent*
5. *Napoleon crushed by Wellington, 1815.*
Internal reform, commerce, extension.
6. *Literature of this era. Burns, Wordsworth, Shelley, Byron, Scott, Jane Austen.*
Austria

1. *To the final partition of Poland under Catherine the Great.*
2. *The Napoleonic conflict.*
3. *Expansion of the Empire. Holy Alliance.*
Prussia *Losses under Frederick William II and Frederick William III, 1786-1840.*
Reforms of Stein and Hardenberg.
War of Liberation, 1806.
Peace of 1815, increase of territory

1. *Alliance of Joseph II and Catherine the Great in the war with Turkey.*
2. *To the Treaty of Reichenbach, 1790.*
3. *The Napoleonic conflict. Francis defeated at Austerlitz. Treaty of Presburg.*
Austria and Germany reorganized.
4. *In the Reconstruction Lombardy Venetia, Tyrol, fell to Austria.*

Waterloo Reconstruction

FROM THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE FALL OF NAPOLEON

In our last study we saw how Richelieu had established absolutism in France, how it was abused by the three following rulers, and how it failed. France is now on the brink of a mighty upheaval. It is one of those moments that indicates so much as to the existing conditions in a State, and that issues in so much in the things that follow. Our present study comprises two periods: it begins with a Revolution and ends with a Reconstruction.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

I. Fundamental Causes.

It is of the first importance that we understand the true causes of such a revolution. We should see how these furnish an intelligent explanation of such an event. They should set forth the circumstances of one period as operative in the next. Clearly perceived they point to the inevitable in the violation of fundamental law. Great moral principles come to shore and are accentuated in great national crises, and there is perhaps no period in history when such was the case more than in the period of the French Revolution. For a long time moral principle had been outraged by a system of things that became insufferable and the consequence was a revolution. But this

crisis also indicates a progress in social and political ideas which find expression in this breaking up of the old order. Let us note specifically what these fundamental causes were.

1. Arbitrary and corrupt administration of government. Executive ministers and the legislative assembly were under the control of the king. By "beds of justice"—a system of legislation against the will of parliament—the king became a despot. High offices were sold to the highest bidders. Whatever measures were proposed the action of the king was final. Absolutism became despotism.

2. Loss of respect for the throne. "The debauchery of Louis XV and his feeble foreign policy tended to dissipate what reverence for royalty was left."

3. Inequality and favoritism. Those who were able to pay well for it were raised to distinction by the king. But "in 1789 France demanded *equality* and *fraternity*. These two synonyms meant the complete overthrow of the old system; for that system was built from its very base upon privilege, inequality, class selfishness, disorder." When we remember that nearly two-thirds of all the land was held by the nobles and the clergy, which brought pleasure and ease to the rich and only burdens to the poor, we can understand the growing attitude of the peasants under constantly enlightening conditions.

4. Taxation and legislation. Various heavy taxes were levied the burden of which fell upon the common people. For the collection of these unjust assessments special courts were created. "No less than two hundred and eighty-five law codes existed in the kingdom and no peasant or itinerant tradesman could know sufficient law to be safe outside his home district. The legal class almost outnumbered the nobility and drew especially rich plunder from disputes over intricate land laws. Thus 'justice' as well as office went to the highest bidder."

5. Intellectual awakening. In this we find the real, the essential cause of the French Revolution. Aside from this the other conditions would never have produced such an eruption. Only as the people come to more advanced ideas do they come to a full realization of their needs, the limitations under which they suffer and the possibilities of a higher and better order of things.

This was the case with the French people. A great change in thought had developed. The English system of government had been investigated by Voltaire and he devoted his brilliant literary abilities to the exposure and criticism of the French régime. Rousseau, in his *Social Contract* declared that "all power comes from the people and that they alone should determine the manner of their government." To this same end the works of Diderot and Montesquieu contributed.

By these works the people came to an intelligent apprehension of existing conditions, and the great need of a new order. It was this awakening that constituted the fundamental cause of the Revolution. "The current of thought was in a revolu-

tionary direction. Traditional beliefs in religion were boldly questioned. Political speculation was rife. Montesquieu had drawn attention to the liberty secured by the English constitution. Voltaire had dwelt on human rights—the rights of the individual. Rousseau had expatiated on the sovereign right of the majority. Add to these agencies the influence of the American Revolution and of the American Declaration of Independence, with its proclamation of human rights, and of the foundation of government in contract and the consent of the people."

Thus we see how both English institutions, and the exemplification of their principles in the American Revolution at that very time were greatly effective in leading the French mind to higher ideals and arousing it to a betterment of its condition.

II. Periods of the Revolution.

The Chart distinguishes five periods beginning with the National Assembly and ending with the fall of the Directory. The following questions and topics for study arranged under these five divisions will guide the student in the study of the details. The principal facts of the preceding study relative to France together with the present survey of the causes of the Revolution should enable us to appreciate the significance of this period.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The student will find the following works helpful: *The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era*, chs. i-vii, by Rose. Ste-

phen's *Revolutionary Europe*, chs. ii-vii. *History of All Nations*, Vol. XVI, 19-253.

1. The National Assembly.

The States-General consisted of 1200 members, the election of which took place during the winter of 1788-89. One hundred and seventy-five years had passed since the last sessions of that body. Five things were emphasized by the reports of the representatives of the three estates; First, the general state of suffering; second, equal taxation; third, personal liberty; fourth, freedom of the press; fifth, finances to be under the control of the States-General.

(1) What oath was taken by the commoners in what was known as the "tennis court oath"?

(2) What significance attached to the fall of the Bastille at the beginning of the Revolution, and what state of things immediately followed?

(3) In what manner did the American Declaration of Independence influence the deliberations of the National Assembly?

(4) Formation of the new constitution, and the political union of the French provinces. What attempts were made by Mirabeau in the direction of a constitutional monarchy, and by what were they rendered abortive?

(5) Macaulay's *Essay on Mirabeau*.

(6) State some of the leading provisions of the new constitution.

(7) Deprived of the support of Mirabeau by his death, why did the king flee from Paris? Was it a discreet or a cowardly action?

2. The Constitutional Monarchy.

With such hostile factions as the Girondists and the Jacobins fighting for governmental control the monarchy could make no progress, while the existing conditions in matters of poverty, religious civil warfare and insecurity of life and property reached a desperate stage.

(1) What was the influence of Lafayette under the new order?

(2) Why did the Girondists demand a foreign war, and when and against whom was it formerly declared? How did the first campaign issue?

(3) What were the grounds of the dethronement and execution of Louis XVI?

(4) In the first coalition against France that immediately followed, what European States were involved?

(5) Note the organization and rise to supremacy of the Committee of Public Safety. Of what Committee did Robespierre become the leader, and what was the course of the "Black Terror" under its policies? What persons of distinction fell under the guillotine at this time?

(6) Under what conditions did the Convention rise against Robespierre and send him to the guillotine?

3. The Convention.

Following this period of wholesale destruction the Committee was subordinated to the Convention.

(1) What conditions followed the reign of terror known as the "White Terror"?

(2) Note the success attending the French arms in breaking the First Coalition.

(3) What new political system was undertaken in 1795, and what were the special provisions of the new constitution?

(4) Placed in charge of the defense of the Convention Napoleon Bonaparte was raised to prominence. Capital punishment was abolished and amnesty granted to persons under political accusations.

4. The Directory.

When the Directory was established France was in a state of bankruptcy, and England regarded the new order as temporary and unstable and refused to follow other nations that were making overtures for peace.

(1) Trace the progress of the war in the campaigns of 1796 and 1797. What reverses did the French suffer, and what were Napoleon's successes in Italy? What other gains rewarded French arms?

(2) Who were the Clichians, and what was their political position?

(3) England alone opposed France in the campaigns of the next two years, her fleet being supreme on the sea. What did

Napoleon gain by the Battle of the Pyramids, and what did Nelson gain by the Battle of the Nile?

(4) What were the conditions that pointed out his personal opportunity and led him to desert his army and return to France?

(5) What was the general state of things under the Directory that led the people to greet Napoleon as a deliverer when he reached Paris, and how were these conditions favorable to his personal ambitions?

THE NAPOLEONIC ERA.

We enter upon a period of far-reaching significance in the history of Europe. The dawn of the nineteenth century witnesses the marvelous spectacle of a great central figure determining the moves of nations upon the political chessboard of Europe. Over these States he waves his sword and stirs them to mighty action. The issue of the forces of the nineteenth century called into such activity will be a new era in the history of Europe and of the world. The tremendous figure of Napoleon rose on the wave of democratic militarism "only to neglect national sympathies and to be cast down." It is one of those remarkable spectacles in the history of great men and stirring deeds. It is only as we stand at Waterloo and at the point of the Reconstruction that we can adequately appreciate such elements as the significance of England's naval supremacy, The Peace of Tilsit, the Continental System, the

Peninsular War, the Russian disaster, the War of Liberation, and other events.

Critical moments in the history and development of humanity, when the energies of great nations are strained to the breaking point, are moments when new epochs are formed, new civilizations born. The struggles and conflicts of such an hour are the birth-throes of our mother-life and we anxiously await the issue. The Napoleonic Era was such a moment that struggled to its Waterloo when Britain stood in the breach, brought the conflict to a close and opened the door to a new age.

I. France.

We have already seen how the various nations were swung into the vortex of this struggle with France in the First Coalition. Napoleon was then under the Directory, but now France is under Napoleon. The fall of the Directory was followed by the Consulate, and the Consulate by the New Empire to the fall of Napoleon and the Reconstruction. We now trace the events within these brief periods.

1. The Consulate.

Under Napoleon's supervision the Constitution of the Year VIII was formulated by Sieyès and was adopted by a popular vote in December, 1799. The Directory had failed, and the new system under Napoleon was the only thing to accept as assuming any degree of stability. He restored religion which

suffered so greatly during the Revolution, and allegiance to the pope was allowed on condition of obedience to the constitution.

(1) State the leading features of Napoleon's internal administration.

(2) What brilliant **men were** included in Napoleon's ministry?

(3) What powers formed the Second Coalition against France, and what importance attached to the Peace of Luneville?

(4) Why was the war with England renewed after the Peace of Amiens, and why did Napoleon sell Louisiana to the United States?

(5) When was Napoleon crowned Emperor and what significance attached to the coronation as to the subordination of the ecclesiastical to temporal power?

(6) To what extent did the French enjoy self-government under the Consulate?

2. The Empire.

"The form of government in France was little changed under the Empire, but the assemblies became absolutely subservient and the Council of State, in which the emperor personally superintended his ministry, grew to be the real ruling body. Through this almost military bureaucracy, Napoleon governed with an attention to detail equal to that of Louis XIV, and with such fierce energy and increasing ability that one of his ministers wrote, 'The gigantic enters into our very

habits of thought' Meantime, freedom of petition, freedom of the press, personal liberty and representative government absolutely ceased to exist in France, and the general, so brilliant in battle, stooped to rule by a vast army of secret spies."

(1) The Third Coalition.

The war with England beginning in 1803 continued until the close of the era involving the other states.

What was the importance of the Battle of Trafalgar both as to naval supremacy and the defeat of the French?

By what maneuvers did Napoleon crush the coalition?

(2) Napoleon's scheme of Empire.

We must keep in mind Napoleon's dominant design, *i. e.*, "to spread throughout Europe the basic principles of the French Revolution."

What did he accomplish by the Treaty of Presburg regarding Austria, and how did he dispose of Germany and Italian states among his relatives? This was the beginning of the Confederation of the Rhine. What benefits accrued to Napoleon and Germany by this Confederation?

(3) In what great battles were Prussia and Russia defeated?

(4) The Peace of Tilsit.

This took place on a raft in the Niemen River between Alexander I and Napoleon and marks the height of Napoleon's power, "the time when he was an unquestioned king of kings."

What were the designs of these two monarchs regarding the division between them of Europe? Had Napoleon any intention of keeping faith with Alexander in these designs?

(5) The Continental System.

What was this system, and what effect did it have upon England and America?

(6) What were the successes of Wellington in the Peninsular War, and what did it contribute to the final result? By this time Napoleon's empire had fallen.

(7) Under what conditions did Napoleon secure an alliance with Austria and Russia and how did it involve his wife Josephine?

(8) *The Empress Josephine*, by Louisa Muhlbach.

(9) What was the greatest extent of Napoleon's Empire in 1810?

(10) State the circumstances regarding the Continental System of the Russian campaign. How did it end for Napoleon?

(11) *The Retreat from Moscow*, by Count Segur.

(12) Trace the movements in the War of Liberation and the results.

(13) The Battle of Waterloo.

The most famous account in Victor Hugo's *Les Misérables*. In what way would the defeat of Wellington have affected the final result?

(14) What were the basic conditions that led to Napoleon's fall? See Emerson's essay on Napoleon, and *Napoleon and His Marshals*, by Headley.

(15) The Reconstruction. Treaties of 1815.

"The principles on which the settlement was founded were rewards to powers which had served against Napoleon; punishment for his allies; restraint upon all dangerous or preponderating powers, and especially upon France; repression of national, democratic and liberal sentiments and a perfect balance of the powers, with causes of rivalry introduced to prevent threatened alliances. Popular government and equality, branded by association in France with military despotism, were outlawed; and people who sympathized with the French Revolution were forced to acknowledge the royal right and prerogative, divine, or at least inalienable."

Give a general statement of the results of the Vienna Congress in the Reconstruction.

II. England.

In the preceding study—From the Peace of Westphalia to the French Revolution—the history of England was traced to George III and American Independence (See Chart 9). Ten years had passed since the war with the American colonies had ended, and America had just framed and ratified by the various States her Constitution when the French Revolution broke out. To regain her strength, following her struggle with America England was compelled to follow a course of economy and reform. The situation in France placed the English ministry in a dubious position as to possible relations with France. "Pitt temporarily believed that France would not in-

terfere in England's affairs, but would rather accept the king under a written constitution. The turn taken by affairs in 1792 altered his opinion, and he recommended placing England's forces upon a war basis. Fox believed this to be an unnecessary extravagance and expressed his admiration for the Revolution. The Tories favored Pitt and the Whigs, Fox; while Burke, who had championed the American Revolution, set himself strongly against the rising in France in his *Reflections on the French Revolution* and found himself isolated in Parliament." When Louis XVI was executed the following year (1793) England was so horrified that Pitt dismissed the French ambassador. This act precipitated war with England that was continued for more than twenty years.

Having outlined quite thoroughly France's conflict with the nations to the fall of Napoleon we may now leave these events and note the other affairs of England during this period.

1. Affairs in Ireland.

(1) What was the cause of the disturbances in Ireland that were put down by the English army in 1798?

(2) In January, 1801, the British realm was entitled the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*. What policy on the part of Pitt relative to Catholic political privileges brought about this union?

2. War with America.

(1) What was the cause of the war?

(2) Considering the tremendous issues at stake in the

Napoleonic wars at this time and the important position of Great Britain in that critical moment in Europe, note how the war of 1812 would be calculated to hinder England's movement in that crisis. It is often overlooked that a war with England at that time would have been a much more serious matter for America had the naval power of Britain not been engaged against France.

(3) In the Treaty of Ghent why was nothing said as to America's alleged causes of war?

3. England in 1815.

The contest with France was a revelation of her strength and national union.

She emerged from the great conflict the most prosperous of any Continental power. "Her industrial competitors had been ruined. She had blotted out the merchant fleets of her Dutch, French and Spanish rivals and now enjoyed not only the naval supremacy of the world, but also its carrying trade."

The great activity of the period was calculated to inspire a new movement in literature. Six great names belong to this period: Robert Burns who exalted "the beauty of the world and the worth of the individual man;" William Woodsworth, "inspired by Burns and the first events of the French Revolution, strove to embody the deepest emotions in every-day words;" Shelley and Byron, who set aside rigid conventions in the revolutionary spirit of their writings; Sir Walter Scott, in his stirring poems and novels of action; Jane Austen, "proved

herself a true disciple of Burns and revealed the literary possibilities of simple village life."

III. Russia.

The study of this period in which these various States were so actively involved shows a marked advance in democratic ideas and political freedom. "Democratic ideals, patriotism and fear of Napoleon swayed many nations. The alliances formed were more for protection against tyranny or for the advancement of liberty, than for the purpose of aiding rulers in gaining more power. In these coalitions we see the beginning of those alliances between nations which in one form or another have continued to the present time." The world had advanced too far in freedom and democracy for any despot to bring any appreciable portion of it under his control for any length of time, no matter what was his personal power or genius.

For Russia's part in the Napoleonic conflict the student is referred to the outline already given under *France*.

1. War with Turkey.

What was the object of Catherine the Great and Joseph II of Austria in this war just prior to the French Revolution? In the interests of the balance of power, how did other nations interfere?

2. What part did Catherine II take in the second partition

of Poland? In the final partition in 1795, what did Russia gain?

3. In what way was the war with Sweden, 1788-1790, favorable to Russia?

4. Note the reforms under Paul I and Alexander I, and the influence of the doctrines of Rousseau upon the latter.

5. In 1815 Alexander, influenced by the principles of Christianity, suggested a Holy Alliance for the displacing of force in international relations. What power opposed this proposition?

IV. Prussia.

Frederick William II ascended the throne of Prussia as France was ripening for the Revolution. To save his position from the danger in which it was placed by the doctrines of the Revolution he attempted to crush France. The result was the loss of his possessions along the Rhine.

In the year of the fall of the French Republic (1797) Frederick William III succeeded to the throne and passed through the Napoleonic conflict. The insults of Napoleon awakened the nation that seemed to have reached its end. We have already seen in what respects Prussia figured in this era of conflict with Napoleon and the services of Blucher at Waterloo. "The Congress of Vienna was one of the most important political events of the first half of the nineteenth century, because it made such a disposition of territory as to render the continuation of the old-time boundaries impossible, and opened

the way for those movements which resulted in the formation of the present German Empire."

1. Reforms of Stein and Hardenberg.

In what way did Stein better the conditions of the serfs, alter the policy of non-taxation of the nobles and improve city government?

How did Hardenberg improve commercial and industrial conditions, and what steps did he take to make the army a national institution?

2. In what war did Prussia regain her place among the first nations of Europe?

"The salvation of the kingdom lay in the fact that her statesmen recognized the difficulties involved in this heterogeneous realm, divided as it was by the English province of Hanover and completely surrounded by jealous rivals. The Prussian leaders wisely and successfully set themselves to gain favor in Germany and to obtain for their kingdom a prominent position in European affairs as the champion of German unity."

V. Austria.

As the dark clouds of revolution were lowering upon France, Joseph II died. We have already noticed his alliance with Catherine the Great in the war with Turkey for the pur-

pose of extending his eastern borders. He suppressed a revolt in the Austrian Netherlands, but his army was defeated by the rebels in the next revolt when an attempt was made to tax Belgium to defray the cost of the war with Turkey, which ended in the Netherlands separating from Austria and forming a republic.

Hungary's opposition to Joseph's policy regarding German unity which threatened to separate her from the Empire was only silenced by special privileges and wholesale concessions. His attempts at reform were a failure, and at the dawn of the era of our present study his brother Leopold II "encountered a situation which required all his marvelous ability as a ruler."

Leopold had a clearer vision of the difficulties that stood in the way of the consolidation of the Empire, among which were the geographical positions of his lands, the mixture of races and consequent divergence of customs, laws and beliefs. He began at once to conciliate Hungary and then by force brought Belgium into subjection, in which he was supported by England and Prussia.

1. Influence of the French Revolution.

The French queen was the sister of Leopold. The effect of the Revolution was probably felt more keenly in Austria than by any other neighboring state.

2. The Treaty of Campo Formio.

In this treaty of what sections was Austria deprived by Napoleon, and what did she receive? Note the loss of these

possessions in the Treaty of Presburg after the Austerlitz campaign.

3. In what manner did the Confederation of the Rhine deprive the term *Holy Roman Empire* of any significance, and how did it affect the imperial title of Francis II?

4. In the reorganization of Austria and Germany what influences operated in arousing a strong patriotism, but what results followed the campaign of 1809?

5. Review the facts regarding the Reconstruction with special reference to the gains of Austria as recognition of her assistance in the overthrow of Napoleon.

The Chart.

The Chart is designed to be helpful to the student in the study of the facts in furnishing an outline and holding the facts in proper relation. The whole period may now be briefly reconstructed by the means of the Chart. Grasp the various divisions of the Chart showing the connection of the French Revolution with the Napoleonic Era and the convergence of all lines to Waterloo and the Reconstruction. The study of this period has shown us the great advance that has been made in democratic ideas paving the way for the next period—National and Democratic Europe. To fully appreciate that larger civilization we should be sure that we have grasped the great significance of this mighty conflict in which these great principles of freedom and democracy were involved, and at Waterloo the way finally opened for their larger expression.

National and Democratic Europe

Great Britain Reform Measures. From George IV to Queen Victoria

1. <i>Period of Reforms. George IV, 1820-30. The "Acts" 1816-20. Canning's ministry. Wellington's. O'Connell. Catholicism.</i>	William IV, 1830-37. <i>Reform. Slavery abolished.</i>	<i>To Crimean War, 1856. Black Sea open to the world's commerce. From 1856-70. Sepoy rebellion. Palmerston, Gladstone.</i>
2. <i>Queen Victoria, 1837-1901. To the Oriental Wars, 1842. Melbourne's ministry. Peel's</i>		

France From Waterloo to Sedan

1. <i>Second Constitutional Monarchy, 1815-1848. Louis XVIII, 1814-24. Charles X, 1824-30. Question of popular government. Revolutions.</i>	2. <i>Second Republic, 1848-52. Socialists and the red flag. Fall of the Republic.</i>	<i>Sardou, Renan, etc. Crimean war. Italian war, Savoy and Nice. Franco-German War, 1870. Defeat at Sedan. Republican government movement</i>
3. <i>Second Empire, 1852-70. Commercial and literary development. Hugo, Jaine,</i>		

Germany From Confederation to Empire

1. <i>The Confederation 1815-66. State Constitutions. The Manifesto of 1820. The Zollverein. Unity.</i>	<i>Frederick William IV, 1840. The Revolution of 1848. William I, 1861-88. Bismarck. End of Confederacy.</i>	2. <i>North German Confederation, 1866-70. Constitution. The War. Empire proclaimed.</i>
<i>Southern Europe Italy, Greece, Turkey, Spain, Portugal</i>		

1. <i>Italy. Under foreign rule. War of Liberation, 1859. Garibaldi. Victor Emmanuel.</i>	2. <i>Greece. Turkish, Venetian. Ottoman rule, 1453-1830. Independence.</i>	3. <i>Turkey. Eastern Question.</i>
		4. <i>Spain under Bourbons.</i>
		5. <i>Portugal. Political struggles.</i>

Scandinavia Low Countries, Switzerland, Russia

1. <i>Sweden and Norway. Charles XIV, 1818-44. Oscar I, 1844-59. Charles XV, 1859-72.</i>	3. <i>Belgium and Netherlands united, 1815. Holland under the House of Orange.</i>	5. <i>Russia. Last years of Alexander I. Nicholas 1825-55. Crimean War. Alexander II, 1855-81.</i>
2. <i>Decline of Denmark.</i>	4. <i>Switzerland. Jesuits expelled. Constitution, 1848.</i>	

To The Franco-German War 1815-1870

NATIONAL AND DEMOCRATIC EUROPE

A great revolutionary period such as we have passed through in the preceding study is indicative of a radical change in the thought of the people. The French Revolution almost immediately succeeded the American, and was influenced by it. There was an enlarging consciousness of freedom, a great awakening along democratic lines. The reason why various measures in England became the occasion of the demand of the colonies for independence was because the larger spirit of freedom was already well developed. And we saw in the discussion of the causes of the French Revolution that the fundamental cause is not to be looked for in certain economic conditions but in the intellectual awakening of the people. Modern history is the record of a constantly increasing individualism. The ancient conception of the individual for the State has been reversed—it is the State for the individual. It is along this line that modern thought and development proceed. The national consciousness passes through a period of larger understanding that becomes inconsistent with the old order of things under which it existed. It awakens to this discrepancy and in order to install new conditions consistent with its new views and appreciations sometimes finds itself in a sharp conflict with the old order, and by a revolution must fight its way to its higher station. When a nation believes it is capable of self-government it refuses to lie passively at the feet of any

power if there is any way of securing its rights. When Napoleon attempted to establish an Empire outside of France he failed to understand the extent that democracy had developed in Europe. That for which the nations fought in the Napoleonic Era is that which they will more greatly exemplify in the next and following periods. The principle for which America fought in her Revolution is that which will distinguish her advancing civilization. Thus it is that we must clearly see what it was that dominated in this revolutionary period, in order both to follow the historic evolution and to understand what the next period is to represent.

A glance at the chart will indicate that our present study will carry us from the close of the Napoleonic Era to the Franco-German War.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The period upon which we now enter is one of the most important in British history. Among the epoch-making events of this period were parliamentary reforms, Catholic emancipation and the measures that instituted free trade.

From 1816 to 1820 was a period of reaction. Efforts to improve the social conditions were opposed by the conservatives who feared that the adoption of some of the measures proposed would precipitate a revolution. As a check upon

sedition meetings and organizations the government passed the Five Acts which for a time had a quieting effect.

Then followed the Manchester riot in which eighty thousand people demanded public reforms. This led Parliament to pass the notorious Six Acts by which public political meetings were forbidden.

I. George IV, 1820-1830.

The men who figured largely during this reign were:

1. Canning who followed Castlereagh as foreign minister. He adopted a liberal policy and opposed the Holy Alliance in its interference in foreign affairs. Guizot says of him, "He transferred England from the camp of resistance and of European order into the camp of liberty."

2. The Duke of Wellington who became premier of the new cabinet whose chief support in the House of Commons was Robert Peel.

3. Daniel O'Connell who was raised to the highest position in Ireland was elected to Parliament in 1828 and devoted himself to Catholic emancipation.

II. William IV, 1830-1837.

He came to the throne in the midst of financial distress and reform agitation, while the July Revolution in France was contributing to the discontent of the people. The leading interests of this reign were:

1. Parliamentary Representation. "The chief popular demand in England and that which led to the greatest event of William's reign was for reform in the election of the House of Commons."

2. The Great Reform Bill.

This was passed by the House in 1832 after the greatest agitation it had occasioned for two years, and at times seemed to threaten civil war. "This was one more great victory for the people, for though the laboring class did not receive much greater consideration, yet the farmers and the city property-holders were able to take their share in the government, and the House of Commons became wholly independent from the peerage and a truly elective and representative body."

3. The Emancipation Act.

The abolition of negro slavery in the British colonies in 1833.

III. Queen Victoria, 1837-1901.

It is with the reign of Queen Victoria that the history of the present age in England may be said to begin. The following things are of special importance in studying the history of this period:

- (1) The reference of the various movements to their fundamental causes. It has been the aim of this treatise to emphasize this with reference to all historical movements, and

to show that until such causes are discovered history has been studied only in a superficial way.

(2) The governmental policy prevailing in each administration. A clear apprehension of these policies is essential to an intelligent understanding of the general development.

(3) The essential principle operative in the ministry of Peel. The same with reference to Gladstone and a comparison of these men in their influence upon English affairs.

(4) England's policy of free trade and the laws that had special effect upon her commercial welfare.

1. The state of England at the accession of Queen Victoria.

We cannot do better than quote the eloquent description of Sir Archibald Alison: "Resplendent with glory, teeming with inhabitants, overflowing with riches, boundless in extent, the British Empire at the accession of Queen Victoria seemed the fairest and most powerful domain on earth. It had come victorious through the most terrible strife which ever divided mankind, and, more than once, in the course of it, singly confronted Europe in arms. It had struck down the greatest conqueror of modern times. It still retained the largest part of the continent of North America, and a new continent in Australia had been recently added, without opposition, to its mighty domains. All the navies of the world had sought in vain to wrest from the hands of its sovereign the sceptre of the ocean; all the industry of man, to rival in competition the produce of its manufactures or the wealth of its merchants.

It had given birth to steam navigation, which bridged the Atlantic, and railways, which had more than halved distance. It had subdued realms which the Macedonian phalanx could not reach and attained a dominion beyond what the Roman legions had conquered. An hundred and twenty millions of men, at the period of its highest prosperity, obeyed the sceptre of Alexander; as many in after times, were blessed by the rule of the Antonines; but an hundred and fifty millions peopled the realms of Queen Victoria; and the sun never set on her dominions, for before 'his declining rays had ceased to illuminate the ramparts of Quebec, his ascending beams flamed on the minarets of Calcutta.'"

2. A general outline of the leading events of the period.

(1) Discontent in Canada and Jamaica, and Chartist agitations in England.

(2) The new postal service, a boon to the nation.

(3) The Oriental Wars, 1838-1846.

(4) From the fall of Melbourne to the Crimean War.

(a) The ministry of Peel. The improved conditions of the country and repeal of the Corn Laws. The Irish famine and resignation of Peel.

(b) England's policy of free trade, Gladstone the new chancellor of the exchequer and his important measure.

(c) The Crimean War and the Black Sea opened to the world's commerce.

(5) The Growth of Democracy.

Extending through the balance of this period and on to the

present time are the legislative measures directed to the development of British democracy.

- (a) The Sepoy rebellion, 1857.
- (b) The way opened for the Jews to enter Parliament.
- (c) Palmerston's second ministry, 1859-1865.

The commercial treaty with France.

The international significance of the Anglo-Chinese treaty of 1860.

England's attitude to the civil war in America.

(d) The Gladstone-Disraeli campaign, the Fenian movement the issue.

(e) Gladstone's first ministry.

Irish reforms and compulsory education.

Questions and Topics for Study.

Gardiner's *Students' History of England*, pp. 914-952, and *Elements of English Constitutional History* by Montague, will be found helpful.

1. Period of George IV.

(1) With what opposition was Canning confronted in his efforts in behalf of the Catholics?

(2) What principle in foreign affairs did he introduce that conflicted with the Holy Alliance?

(3) In what important foreign policy was he assisted by the United States?

(4) How did Wellington co-operate with O'Connell and what did Catholic Emancipation involve?

2. Period of William IV.

(1) Reform in the election of the House of Commons was the chief event of this reign. How was Parliamentary representation effected?

(2) What was the nature of the victory in the Great Reform Bill?

(3) Note the general advance of the period in the emancipation of the negro, legislation regarding the poor and Municipal Reform Bill.

(4) George Eliot's *Felix Holt* whose scenes are laid in this period.

3. Period of Queen Victoria.

(1) How was she related to George III?

(2) What caused the fall of Melbourne?

(3) How did Peel handle the problems that confronted him, and what did his premiership do for England?

(4) Life and Work of Peel. Thursfield's *Peel*.

(5) What were the Corn Laws, and was the measure repealing them a wise one?

(6) What was the cause of the Crimean War, and what was the great result?

(7) Stories of the War. Tolstoi's *Sevastopol*.

(8) What effect did the Sepoy Rebellion have upon the government of India?

(9) State England's free trade policy. How did Palmerston regard it?

(10) Why did the nobility sympathize with the South in the American Civil War?

(11) How did Gladstone figure in the financial reforms of this period?

(12) What solution of the Irish land question did Gladstone offer during his first ministry?

(13) The Modern English Period as described by Mrs. Ward's *Marcella*.

FRANCE.

With the fall of the Empire of Napoleon and the restoration of Louis XVIII a new era begins and France is to pass through a second series of experiments in government taking the forms successively of constitutional monarchy, republic and empire. The first of these for five years represented moderation, the next ten years it tended toward the Ultras, this was followed for the next decade by republican simplicity and in the end took on the form of royalism.

The second stage, that of the republic, was a transitional period. Passing into the third form the development was toward liberalism following a period of reaction.

During this period, from 1830 to 1870, three revolutionary movements were attended with unusual results. That of 1830 "doomed despotic alliances for interference in the internal af-

fairs of other states; that of 1848, which opened the way for socialism and universal suffrage, and that of 1870, which placed Europe in the attitude of armed neutrality. Socialism and militarism arising from definite causes powerfully influenced politics, diplomacy and international progress. Finally, nationality and democracy, which had been neglected in the settlement of 1815, developed from the confused forces of the previous period, and, making the century a stormy era, grew to power." This briefly states the manner in which France emerged from the Napoleonic Era, and through successive changes advanced to nationality and democracy.

For the study of this period the following works are recommended: *A Political History of Europe Since 1814* by Seignobos; *Modern Europe* by Phillips; *Constitutions and Documents of France* by Anderson.

I. The Second Constitutional Monarchy.

This extended from 1815 to 1848. Louis XVIII was restored in 1814 and his reign continued to 1824.

1. The intellectual revival.

French agriculture and commerce had greatly suffered under the wars of Napoleon and the general condition of the people had greatly declined. With the new era began to develop that interest in art and culture that has become the pride of France. Romanticism in literature took the place of the

colder forms influenced by Roman literature, and the ideal representation of nature and life became dominant. "Criticism, music and art revived; science and invention attracted notice; interest in education was aroused, and in 1833 France began to organize primary schools and to attack the dense ignorance of her masses, most of whom could not even read."

2. To the July Monarchy.

(1) Trace the four stages, indicated in the introductory statement, through which the constitutional monarchy passed.

(2) What were some of the political questions with which the government experimented, and how were the Liberals distinguished from the Ultras?

(3) What was the cause of the Revolution of 1830 and what did it accomplish?

3. From the July Monarchy to the Republic.

The period between 1830 and 1848 was one of discontent. "The revolutionists demanded the glories of the Convention, the Rights of Man and the propagation of republican doctrines. The old questions of suffrage, freedom of the press and the choice of ministers, arose again and again.

(1) What instigated the Revolution of 1848 and what was its international significance?

(2) How would you describe each of the rulers of this period?

II. *The Second Republic.*

1. Note the manner in which the Revolution discredited France in the eyes of Europe in the establishment of a republican form of government. Why was this?

2. What brought about the rise of Socialism and how was it signalized? What was responsible for the bloodshed of the five days of June?

3. Trace the rise of Louis Napoleon to absolute power, and his tactics in becoming the head of an imperial dynasty as Napoleon III.

4. The usurpation of Napoleon III. Victor Hugo's *History of a Crime*.

III. *The Second Empire.*

1. In what manner did Napoleon III attempt to make his reign resemble that of Napoleon I?

2. What elements of progress and prosperity belong to the period from 1850 to 1870 relative to commerce, great enterprises, expositions, etc.? What treaty opened the way for free trade with England?

3. Who were some of the prominent authors that distinguished this period of the Empire?

4. What part did France take in the Crimean War, and of what importance was the war to France?

5. What was involved in the Italian War? What did Italy gain? What did Napoleon accomplish regarding Russia and Austria?

6. What were the causes of the Franco-German War? What advance had Prussia been making in military matters, and what contributed to the defeat of France? What were the terms of peace?

7. *Napoleon III and His Court*, by Saint Armand.

GERMANY.

As we come to this stage of German development the student should trace the conditions from the formation of the German Empire and especially those which placed Prussia at the head of the German States. German affairs had been greatly influenced by the Austrian prime minister, Metternich, whose object was to prevent any movement tending to the enlargement and growth of Germany. We should see how the Congress of Vienna was operative in those conditions that were to effect the formation of the German States, and to note the influence of the French Revolution upon the larger political freedom of the States of Europe. The Germany at the close of the Napoleonic Era was a federal government which had represented no less than three hundred independent states. These had been reduced by Napoleon until there were but thirty-nine actual sovereigns. Thus we see the effect this period had upon these German States and how it was calculated to assist in the coming Germanic confederation. The necessity of such a confederation, of a strong central organization, was fully recognized. The only question was the best way of establishing it. Fears were entertained regarding Prussia and Austria,

and some of the middle states opposed the organization of a strong central power.

The period from 1815 to 1870 presents to us two leading interests in German affairs: the German Confederation (1815-1866), and the North German Confederation (1866-1870).

I. *The Germanic Confederation.*

For the study of this whole period the student is referred to *Modern Europe* by Alison Phillips, and *Bismarck and German Unity* by Munroe Smith.

The following questions will enable the student to trace the movements and their basic conditions of this period of Germanic confederation.

1. To the Accession of William IV.

(1) What were the leading provisions of the constitution of the Confederation?

(2) What interest did university students take in political affairs represented by the *Burschenschaft*, and what was the immediate aim of this organization? What was attempted by the Carlsbad Decrees regarding these societies?

(3) State the influence of the Paris Revolution of 1830 upon the German liberal movement.

(4) Who established the Zollverein and what did it effect?

(5) When did William IV come to the throne of Prussia?

2. To the dissolution of the Confederation.

(1) What brought about the revolutionary movement of 1848 in Germany, and what effect did it have upon liberal tendencies? Note the various acts of the parliament, the prominence of Prussia, and the refusal of Frederick William to become emperor. How did the parliament end?

(2) When did William I come to the throne? His great interest lay in a closer union of the German States. In 1851 Bismarck became prominent and upon him the king leaned for support and judgment in the affairs of State. This great statesman discovered that the reason why Germany had failed was "because of the neutrality of the two great states, Prussia and Austria, and felt that the only way to attain the desired end was for Prussia to pursue a policy entirely independent of Austria and to become the champion of German nationality."

(3) In order to accomplish this purpose into what wars did Bismarck force Germany?

(4) Following the Seven Weeks' War what Peace secured the supremacy of Prussia and dissolved the Germanic Confederation?

II. The North German Confederation.

This confederacy was organized by Bismarck under the conviction that the Southern country was not ready to enter a German union. This confederacy embraced only the states

north of the Main River. In 1867 it framed a constitution which became the basis of the present constitution.

1. What were the four main principles of this constitution and how did they distinguish Bismarck's statesmanship?

2. State again the cause of the Franco-German War. What were Bismarck's designs that produced this conflict?

3. How do you account for the unusual victories of the German army, and what was ceded to Germany by the treaty that followed?

4. Note that this war was instrumental in bringing Northern and Southern states to desire the union of all Germany and thus laid the foundations of the German Empire.

5. For the struggles toward unity following the Revolution of 1848 read *Problematic Characters* and *Through Night to Light* by Spielhagen.

6. *Bismarck and German Unity* by Munroe Smith.

SOUTHERN EUROPE.

The works of Seignobos and Phillips already referred to will be found especially helpful in the study of this section.

I. Italy.

It will be well to review the history of Italy from the end of the fourteenth century and to note that from that time Italy was without any national history. It comprised a number of independent cities and states. "During much of that period

the country was the chief battleground of Europe, the prize for which the sovereigns of France, Spain and Austria waged wars among themselves and with the Italian rulers, with the result, by the end of the seventeenth century, that the social and political condition of Italy was deplorable. The chief controlling power was Austria." Trace the events from the rise of the House of Savoy through the period of French domination and the revival of Austrian rule to the arousing of the national spirit in the period of our present study.

1. The awakening of the national consciousness. The liberal principles which the French had brought to the Italians were effective in this new development and fanned the spark of nationality.

How was this liberal movement in Italy affected by the Revolution of 1830 in Paris?

2. What were the distinctive features of the league called "Young Italy," and how did its methods differ from those of the Carbonari?

3. The leading diplomatist of Italy during the nineteenth century was Count Cavour.

In what way did he help the cause of Italy by inducing Victor Emmanuel to participate in the Crimean War as an ally of England and France?

4. What in northern Europe contributed to the plans of Victor Emmanuel?

5. State the services rendered to Italy by Garibaldi.

6. When did Rome become the capital of Italy?

II. Greece.

After the fall of Constantinople in 1453 Greece passed first under Venetian rule until 1715, and then into the hands of Turkey. Under this despotic rule the Greeks maintained their national spirit and contrived in many ways to restore their national prestige.

1. What was it in Grecian institutions that stimulated the spirit of independence?

2. What part did the secret society, the Hetaeria, play in the war for independence?

3. What were the conditions in England, France and Germany in 1821 when this nine years' struggle began, and why did Europe support Greece in her fight for independence? When and where did the great states compel Turkey to grant freedom to Greece?

4. How did the reign of George I benefit Greece and when did England cede to her the Ionian Isles? What influence did this have upon the determination of Greece to recover the old Hellenic territory?

5. Halleck's poem, *Marco Bozzaris*, the Leonidas of Modern Greece.

III. Turkey.

The great question in Europe for a considerable period has been the "Eastern Question." The eyes of Europe have been upon the disintegrating empire of the Sultan. Russia especially has been anxious to lay hold of that territory and thus

increase her dominion about the Black Sea. The great European States came to realize that the balance of power that would accrue to Russia in seizing these domains was a much more serious thing than the independent existence of Turkey. Hence the attitude of England, France and Austria in supporting the Turkish rule and thus maintaining the balance of power. The Treaty of Paris following the Crimean War sustained the integrity of Turkey which was the soul of the "Eastern Question." Thus Turkey has been for years in the hands of the powers and has been described as the "sick man of Europe."

1. The Eastern Question. *Modern Europe*, by Phillips.

2. What has characterized the rule of Turkey over her subjects?

3. What revolts against Turkish rule have been made in late years?

4. What states came under her dominion, and how many of them are still under her control?

IV. Spain.

In a former study we saw the prestige enjoyed by Spain and the importance of her political influence in Europe. At the close of the sixteenth century Spain was in a state of declension. Philip V of Anjou, a Bourbon prince, was placed on the throne by the war of Spanish Succession, and that dynasty has continued to rule Spain to the present time with the exception of the displacement from 1808 to 1814 when Napoleon placed

his brother Joseph upon the throne, and a second interruption which occurred in 1868. In 1874 the Bourbon line was restored when Alfonso XII came to the throne.

1. Under whose regency did Spain come after the death of Alfonso?

2. Into what distress was the country thrown during this period?

3. What great Spanish statesman brought Spain out of the crises of this regency?

V. Portugal.

1. In what year did Portugal come to her independence?

2. Who established the present reigning house in Portugal?

3. Of what king was Dom Pedro, the ruler of Brazil, the son? When did he succeed to the throne of Spain, and what party did he lead in the political struggles from 1831 to 1834?

4. What has been the issue between the progressives and conservatives since the time of Dom Pedro?

5. How do you explain the low condition of civilization in Spain and Portugal as compared with that of other European States?

OTHER EUROPEAN STATES.

Since the Reconstruction of 1815 a deep interest in governmental affairs on the part of the people has developed in Scandinavia, the Low Countries, Switzerland and Russia. The

period has shown a marked advance in democracy and political liberty.

I. Scandinavia.

The *Political History of Europe* by Seignobos treats of the Scandinavian countries in ch. xviii.

1. What were the conditions in Sweden and Norway when Bernadotte came to the throne?
2. What sort of a union existed between these two countries?
3. Note the prosperity that existed under Charles XV.
4. When and by whom was Denmark deprived of Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg?
5. Problems of Norwegian life. Bjornson's *Magnild*.

II. The Low Countries.

1. By what Congress were Belgium and the Netherlands united under a ruler of the House of Orange?
2. What religious differences brought about friction and rebellion and finally the independence of Belgium?
3. Note the state of prosperity in Belgium during the reigns of Leopold and Leopold II.

The student will find ch. viii of *Political History of Europe* a good treatment of this section.

III. Switzerland.

The student is referred to ch. ix of *Political History of Europe*.

The independent cantons were united by Napoleon in a Swiss federation. Neutrality was guaranteed the Swiss Confederation by the Congress of Vienna.

1. When were the Jesuits driven out of Switzerland?
2. During what revolutionary period did Switzerland secure a better constitution.
3. What modern government does the Swiss government resemble?

IV. Russia.

The *Political History of Europe* by Seignobos treats of Russia and Poland in ch. xix.

The reign of Alexander I continued for ten years after the fall of Napoleon. He disappointed his subjects at the close of the Napoleonic era in failing to institute the reforms they had expected of him, an expectation justified by the splendid beginning of his reign. He entrusted the internal affairs of the Empire to General Arakhtcheyeff.

1. State some of the autocratic measures of this general.
2. How did he seek to break up secret organizations that sought larger political liberty?
3. Why were military colonies established in Russia?
4. The policy of Nicholas I, the younger brother of Alexander I, has been described by the words *nationality*, *autocracy* and *orthodoxy*. What does that signify as applied to the events of his reign?

5. What were the foreign wars of Nicholas I, what did they bring to Russia, and what was his most disastrous war?

6. What resulted from the Polish revolt in 1830?

7. When did Alexander II come to the throne?

(1) His radical educational reforms.

(2) Political reforms and industrial enterprises.

(3) What was his motive in seeking to make the peasants a land-holding class?

8. Domestic and social life of the Russians. Tolstoi's *Anna Karenina*.

The Chart.

The chart is an epitome of this half century of European democratic development. It brings the events together in a

manner that they may be easily related. By the means of the chart the student can with ease see the contemporaneous movement between these states, having the facts and dates before him on a single page. It is of the first importance that we grasp the fundamental changes in European thought leading these states to those higher planes of democracy and liberty and thus helping to solve the world-problem. As we review this period the questions that arise are, What have the struggles and institutions of this period done for the larger freedom and development of the individual life? How have the movements and events conspired to bring about certain great results? Not so much who came off victorious in the Crimean War, for example, but what great principles were operative in the struggle? If we have caught the spirit of this period we are prepared to follow the continued development in the next.



National and Democratic Europe

Great Britain

France

Democracy under Victoria.

1. Disraeli. England's influence.
2. Gladstone's ministry, 1880-86.
Boer war. Trouble in Egypt, '82.
3. Salisbury's ministry.
Irish Question, 1887.
4. Gladstone's fourth ministry:
Home Rule Bill, 1893.
5. From Salisbury's third ministry to the
death of Queen Victoria, 1901. The Land
Act. Boer war. Victorian age of literature.
Edward VII. 1901-10.

1. Educational and Land Purchase Bills.
2. Tariff policy and Tibet expedition.
3. Woman's Suffrage Bill and Budget,
George V, 1910.

England's prosperity, strength and ideals.
German Empire

1. William I, 1871-88. German Imperial Consti-
tution. Triple Alliance. Colonial expansion.
2. Frederick III and William II. Bismarck and
Socialism. Caprivi, LaSalle and Marx,
Hohenlohe and Count von Bulow.
3. Germany's political isolation.
Trouble with France over Morocco 1907-08.
4. German culture and educational system.
Literary contributions from Lessing to
Mommsen-Goethe, Schiller, Richter etc.

From the
Franco-German War
to the
Present Time

1. Third Republic established. The
Constitution of 1875 the present
basis of government.

2. Political troubles-Boulangier, Pana-
ma, Dreyfus, Church and State.
3. French colonies. Russian Alliance.
4. France today a parliamentary republic.
5. Culture. Strong in science, literature, art.
Southern Europe

Turkey The Eastern Question. Revolts and
massacres. The Balkan War, 1912.

Spain Under the Bourbons. Spanish Ameri-
can War, and loss of colonies.

Portugal Progressives versus Conservatives.
Scandinavia, Low Countries, Russia

Norway Independence, 1905.

Netherlands The Hague.

Russia Alexander II. War with Turkey 1877.

Alexander III, 1881-94. Treatment of Jews.

Nicholas II. War with Japan. Revolution.

Morocco trouble 1906-08. The three Dumas.
The Far East

China Progressive tendency. Constitution.

Japan Three Periods of Modern Japan.

1. From 1549 to the end of Feudalism, 1871.

2. Growth of Empire to defeat of China, 1895.

3. From 1900 to the present time. Defeat of
Russia. Prestige. It's statesmanship.

1870-1913

FROM THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR TO THE PRESENT TIME

We come to the closing period of European history which is a still larger development of those principles and tendencies distinguished in the preceding period. Looking forward to the end we can also look back to the beginning of the great movement. Into this mighty stream of our life, from the vantage ground of the present moment, we can see all the tributaries flowing, contributing to the great general result. The currents were not always easy to follow. One great historic billow has been caught up in the arms of another and almost lost to view. But the general life-stream has moved on, and the general tendency has been a forward and upward one. Man has struggled with his problems, facing them and bewildered by them in one age and solving them in the next. What we call his doubts were many times but faith struggling with its difficulties, for how often has a great age of positive conviction and belief been preceded by an age of doubt. Thought moves in great currents, but we must see how the main stream catches up these tributaries and bears them on, commingling the elements and making them contributory to the general result. The principles of one age have become the practices of the next. The Roman Empire passed away but delivered nearly all the elements which are met with in the progressive character of our civilization. Great civilizations seemed to be lost in the back currents of the world's life but

eventually they swing again into the main stream and flow on a mighty living force. The study of history is a standing at the sources, and the discovery of the causes and conditions of the ebb and flow of human life and activity; to watch and understand the confluence of many streams; to follow them in the swirling torrents of conflict and see them as they emerge again into the placidity of peace and quiet. The twentieth century in which we live is the inheritor of the ages, but if we are to have an intelligent appreciation of our inheritance we must be intelligent students of the ages. To know what we are is to know what we have been. "Man know thyself" is an injunction that involves a knowledge of his historic being. Within the confines of our modern life mingle the currents and eddies of the centuries, and we can only approach ourselves by the way of the ages. What we were at any previous time is a partial interpretation of what we are at the present time. As we attempt to understand these last moments of human history, and to grasp the problems that belong to this present age, let us be sure that we have properly pieced together the past, and have some clear general apprehension, not simply of events, but of the fundamental causes that produced them, and a true philosophical understanding of that to which they have contributed.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The student should review the first section of Chart 11 and follow the movement in Great Britain from George IV to Gladstone's first ministry under Victoria in order to get the direct connection between those events and the present study. Our last notice was that of the Irish Reform Bills and education made compulsory in England.

I. Democracy Under Victoria.

Russia took advantage of the war between France and Germany to set aside her agreement regarding the neutrality of the Black Sea, the result accomplished by the Crimean War. England strongly protested but Germany advised that she not attempt to enforce the treaty. Yielding to this advice raised such a criticism by the opposition in Parliament that Gladstone resigned in 1873. His ministry of five years had done much for England in the way of much important legislation.

1. Disraeli's second ministry.

(1) Note how this ministry by its foreign policy increased England's prestige in the East.

(2) What troubles with Turkey arose at this time and how were they settled?

(3) In what way did the wars in South Africa bring discredit to Disraeli that led to his retirement in 1880?

2. Gladstone's second ministry.

- (1) State the cause and outcome of the first Boer War.
- (2) What action in Egypt in 1882 resulted in the great improvement of that country?
- (3) What precipitated the troubles in Khartum?
- (4) What significance attached to Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill, and what was the result?

3. Salisbury's second ministry.

The student should note in what manner the continuance or retirement of a ministry was determined by measures proposed.

4. Gladstone's fourth ministry.

How did his second Home Rule Bill differ from the first and how was it received?

5. What principle was distinguished in all of Gladstone's measures? How would you compare him with Disraeli? Was he a greater statesman than Bismarck?

6. *Life of Gladstone* by Morley. One of the best biographical works of modern times.

7. From Salisbury's third ministry to the death of Queen Victoria.

- (1) What was Salisbury's imperial policy?
- (2) What action did he take regarding Turkish atrocities?
- (3) How was China divided up by the powers following her defeat by Japan in 1894? What did England secure?

(4) What was the Venezuelan controversy and how was it settled?

(5) State the causes of the second Boer War.

(6) How many colonies were united in the Australian federation, and what is to be said for the advanced form of the Australian government?

(7) Death of Victoria.

What were the distinguishing traits of this great sovereign, and how would you characterize her long reign, the longest in history?

At the death of Queen Victoria the Empire was in control of nearly one-half of the colonial possessions of the world, an area of more than eleven and a half million square miles, supporting a population of nearly three hundred and sixty-five millions of people.

8. The Victorian Age in Literature.

(1) Who were the two leading poets of this period?

(2) Name four of the great essayists.

(3) Name the three great novelists.

(4) How would you compare the Victorian with the Elizabethan Age in literature?

II. *King Edward.*

The Prince of Wales succeeded to the throne in 1901 at the age of sixty. He was well qualified for the high position both by his university education in Oxford and Cambridge, his ex-

tensive travels, his seat in the House of Lords and as an earnest student of public questions. "King Edward is a normal modern Englishman; he loves genuine sport and at the same time exhibits a high appreciation for art, science and literature."

1. Who introduced the Land Purchase Bill and what were its provisions?

2. What was the nature and issue of the Alaskan dispute with the United States?

3. Note the socialistic tendencies in British colonies. In which are they most distinct?

4. What would you say of Chamberlain's protective tariff as a commercial policy for Great Britain? Is it better than a free trade policy?

5. What significance attached to the expedition into Tibet?

III. *George V.*

He succeeded to the throne upon the death of his father in 1910 under peaceful and prosperous conditions. The outlook in England is that she will "continue in that liberal course which has made her a leader among nations. Selfishness has not been apparent in any degree in the activities of her modern statesmen. Their political measures have seemed to spring from a desire to better the condition of the people and to give them freedom in politics and religion. The inventive genius and the practical nature of the English have made their progress in science and invention most remarkable, while as

a result of the development of her own resources and the encouragement of commercial enterprises in her colonies and with the world at large, social conditions have been notably improved and the comforts and even luxuries of life are more widely distributed than ever before. A higher standard of morality was never maintained, nor has there ever been greater liberality or more genuine interest in religious matters." Governed by such lofty ideals, and having solved so well governmental problems, and representing such a pure democracy together with the vast extent of her dominion, England stands as the great balancing power among the nations of the world.

FRANCE.

Our preceding study left France defeated at Sedan in the Franco-German War. With our present study this State enters upon a new period in her political, social and intellectual development.

I. *The Third Republic.*

For this period the student will find very helpful *Contemporary Europe, Asia and Africa* by Andrews, and Anderson's *Constitutions and Other Documents*, also Hazell's *Annual*.

The Second Empire lasted less than twenty years. Immediately after the defeat of Sedan the Third Republic was proclaimed.

1. How do you account for the rising of the Commune?

The Downfall by Zola. A graphic picture of Sedan and the horrors of the Commune.

2. What were the provisions of the Constitution of 1875, and what influence did Gambetta exercise at this time?

3. How do the powers of the president compare with those of the president of the United States?

4. To what extent is France self-governing?

II. *Political troubles.*

1. Describe the leading political parties in 1875.

2. What were the pretensions of Boulanger and what support did he receive in the attempt to crush the republic?

3. Who constructed the Suez Canal and headed the company for the construction of the Panama Canal? What was the Panama scandal?

4. Explain the Dreyfus affair. What part did the novelist Zola take in the matter, and what was the final result?

5. *Five Years of My Life* by Captain Dreyfus.

6. What was the relation of Church and State in France as to lead the clergy to favor the overthrow of the republic? What did Gambetta mean by the expression "Clericalism, that is the enemy"?

7. The tendency in France has been to agnosticism. Can this be accounted for by the political use to which religion has been put?

III. *The Colonies and Russian Alliance.*

"In the present era of industrial cities and rapid ocean navigation, colonies have been found necessary to receive the excess of European population, to furnish many States with agricultural products, and to constitute naval bases in war and markets for the world's manufactures. Under the influence of these great considerations, European States have resorted to many pretexts for establishing spheres of influence and finally complete sovereignty over the native tribes of Asia and Africa. In this activity France has held a prominent place."

1. What is the extent of the French colonial empire?
2. What treaty was made with England in 1898 regarding colonial rights in Africa?
3. State the Moroccan situation involving France, England and Germany.
4. What considerations influenced the alliance with Russia, and how did it affect Japanese claims relative to China, in 1894, and why did France not aid her ally in the late war with Japan?

IV. Culture.

1. What has France done for science, art and literature under the third Republic?
2. Zola was the leading advocate of naturalism in literature. Name some of his works.
3. In what measure have Daudet, Guy de Maupassant, Jules Verne, Taine and Renan contributed to the literature of this period?

4. What have been the leading contributions in painting, sculpture and music?

5. State some of the achievements in astronomy, chemistry, physics. What was the theory of Berthelot, and the discovery of Pasteur?

"To all appearances France has at length succeeded in establishing a strong and liberal government. The royalist parties, formerly known as the 'Right' in the legislatures, have practically disappeared. The extreme parties now consist of the clericals on the right and the socialists, leaning to revolution and anarchism, on the left. Between these parties, and in actual control, are the conservative republicans and the opportunists, who have no definite program beyond taking advantage of every opportunity as it appears to strengthen the republic. The larger part of her population is still rural; the republic maintains her pre-eminence in the more delicate industries; arbitration has further removed the necessity of war and permitted the development of the arts of peace. The activity of the socialists is so far from indicating worse conditions of labor that it indicates a great improvement and the awakening of the lower classes to higher needs. The struggle in the future will doubtless centre about socialism, however, and the republic's defense must be education and justice."

GERMAN EMPIRE.

Our preceding study of Germany brought us to the Franco-German War, in which Bismarck accomplished his purpose

and the German Empire was assured. It only remains for us to follow the developments in the Empire from 1871 to the present time.

I. William I.

The student should review the reign of William I up to this point.

1. The German Imperial Constitution.

The constitution of the North German Confederation required but few changes to become the constitution of the Empire since it was formulated with a view to the southern states entering the union. The new instrument with provisions relative to these states and the powers of the various departments of the government appeared April 16, 1871.

(1) How are the two houses, the Federal Council and the Reichstag, composed, and what are their functions?

(2) What limitations are laid upon the government by the Constitution respecting taxation?

(3) What are the provisions regarding the standing army?

2. The emperor's policies.

In the last years of his reign he did much for commercial development in the construction of great canals and in the currency reform of 1873. His imperial chancellor, Bismarck, secured a triple alliance in 1883 between Germany, Austria and Italy.

3. Colonial enterprises.

In this Germany ranks third among the great powers. What do her colonial possessions include?

II. William II.

He succeeded his father, Emperor Frederick III, who reigned but ninety-nine days, his death being the result of an incurable disease from which he was suffering when he succeeded to the throne.

The policy of William II to maintain peace and at the same time the rights of Germany has contributed to the advanced position of the Empire.

1. The Emperor and Bismarck.

Socialism had assumed such importance that in the elections of 1890 it was the leading issue.

(1) What was Bismarck's view as to the best way of dealing with the problem?

(2) What was the view of the emperor and how did the difference in their views result in the fall of Bismarck?

(3) Who became Bismarck's successor?

2. The Growth of Socialism.

In 1860 Karl Marx set forth his theory of Socialism the keynote of which was "the organization of labor and the ultimate ownership and control by the government of all the in-

struments of production and distribution of wealth." The emperor supported many of the reforms announced by the workingmen but warned them "that the demands of socialism, if granted, would undermine the government of the empire and the prosperity of the people." But the Social Democrats (as they are now called) have so steadily gained that in 1898 they polled two million votes which in 1903 was increased to three million, and elected eighty-one members of the Reichstag.

3. What important commercial treaties were signed under Caprivi's chancellorship?

4. What were the naval and colonial developments during Hohenlohe's administration?

5. Count von Bulow's chancellorship.

(1) What was the nature of the Venezuelan controversy with the United States in 1903, involving what American Doctrine?

(2) In 1905 what trouble with France almost precipitated war?

III. Germany's Isolated Position.

For some years Germany has been left out of European alliances. The kaiser has attempted to alter this situation and to bring about alliances, but the part taken by Germany in the Boxer uprising in China and her position relative to the Russo-Japanese War have had the effect of holding her in political isolation. A statement by William II expressing his attitude

to Great Britain met with serious criticism in the Federal Council and the Reichstag.

IV. German Literature.

Two centuries after Martin Luther, from whom the German language first received a literary form, a national literature was developed. In the literary awakening Lessing figured in the creation of the first national drama. In the following century "the progress of German literature is hardly paralleled in history. The poet Goethe was the most famous of German writers because of his genius and philosophy and his ability to depict the universal characteristics of human nature." Following Goethe the lyric poet Heine took the leading place among German men of letters. In philosophy and science were Leibnitz, Richter, the Humboldts, Kant, Fichte, Schelling and Hegel. The nineteenth century brought forth Freytag, von Scheffel, Von Ranke, Mommsen and Hauptmann's dramas expressing opposition to the present social conditions.

"Germany has long ranked first among the nations in its educational system and methods, its only serious rival being the United States. In recent times mammoth technical schools have been established in various parts of the empire, and they have contributed largely to the recent rapid industrial development."

In the sphere of art Germany enjoys a high distinction, especially in the composition and interpretation of music, Berlin being the musical center of the world.

SOUTHERN EUROPE.

Turkey.

1. Rebellion in Bulgaria in 1876 followed by massacres of Christians by the Turks.

2. Accession of Abdul Hamid II, 1876. Revolts in Servia and Montenegro.

3. Demand of the powers concerning reforms.

4. International Congress at Berlin, 1878.

5. Armenian massacres, 1895-96. Massacres in Macedonia, 1903.

6. The Young Turk Party and restoration of the Constitution, 1908.

7. Results of the Revolution.

8. The Balkan War of 1912.

Spain.

1. The Bourbon line re-established in 1874 and accession of Alfonso XII, 1874-86.

2. The regency of Maria Christina, and the great services of the premier Sagasta.

3. War with America, 1898, and loss of territory.

4. King Alfonso XIII, 1902, a strong and liberal ruler seeking the restoration of Spain's progress and prestige.

Portugal.

1. Separation of Brazil from Portugal in the revolution of 1889, and the establishment of a Republican Government.

2. King Charles I, 1889. A period of peace, but the burden of a heavy and constantly increasing debt.

Questions.**1. Turkey.**

(1) What did England secure in the International Congress? In what relation did the Congress leave Bulgaria, Rumelia, Macedonia, Rumania, Servia and Montenegro? This treaty did not settle the Eastern Question.

(2) What prevented Europe from interfering as it should have interfered at the time of the great massacres of 1895-96?

(3) In the Revolution of 1909 why was Abdul Hamid deposed and who succeeded him? What good results followed the revolution?

(4) What precipitated the Balkan War of 1912? Who were the allies against Turkey and what losses did she suffer? What European territory still lies under her control?

2. Spain.

(1) What were the troubles during the regency of Maria Christina, and what services did Sagasta render?

(2) What precipitated the Spanish-American War? Did the Monroe Doctrine have anything to do with this?

The developments in Turkey and the Balkan States during this period indicate the steady disintegration of the Turkish empire. In the last conflict the powers left her alone to fight her own battles. The purpose seems to be to drive Turkey out of Europe and back into Asia. But the problem of the Eastern Question is still awaiting solution. Constantinople holds a strategic position, and the balance of power regarding Turkish territory is still the concern of Europe. Palestine is still in the hands of the Turk and for some years past the Zionists have been active in endeavoring to secure from Turkey a release of that territory, offering for the same a large sum of money. With Palestine in the hands of the Jew and brought under larger cultivation and industrial development a home would be offered for many Jews having patriotic feelings regarding their ancient land and a refuge from anti-Semitic persecution. Strong hopes are entertained by the Zionists that, in the present depleted condition of Turkey, these overtures for full possession of the land will be successful.

SCANDINAVIA, LOW COUNTRIES, RUSSIA.

NORWAY	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gained independence in 1905. 2. Provision for arbitration in the event of future disputes with Sweden. 3. A constitutional monarchy. Accession of Prince Charles.
DENMARK	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Christian IX, 1863-1906. 2. Resemblance of Danish government to that of England. 3. A period of prosperity. 4. Establishment of the Lutheran religious creed. 5. King Frederick VIII, 1906.
NETHERLANDS	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Regency of Queen Emma, 1890. 2. Extensive colonial interests. 3. The International Peace Conference, 1899, and permanent selection of the Hague.
BELGIUM	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Kongo Free State placed under the rule of Belgium in 1885. 2. The right of annexing this district granted.
RUSSIA	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. War with Turkey, 1877. Treaty of Berlin. 2. Alexander III. Reform policy. 3. Alexander's policy regarding the Jews. 4. Nicholas II, 1894. Commercial enterprises and colonial expansion. 5. War with Japan, 1904-05. Terms of the Treaty. 6. Revolutionary conditions in Russia and beginning of representative government. 7. The three Dumas, 1906-1907.

Questions.**1. Norway.**

(1) By what treaty was the separation of Norway from Sweden effected?

(2) What was the relation of the queen of Prince Charles to Edward VII of England?

(3) What is meant by a constitutional monarchy?

2. Denmark.

Note the difference between the Danish government and that of England in the larger power vested in the king of the former.

3. Netherlands.

(1) What are some of the island possessions of the Netherlands?

(2) At what place was established a permanent international tribunal for arbitration among the nations? When did the Second Peace Conference convene at this point, how many nations were represented and what questions were considered?

What does such a tribunal signify as to modern tendencies?

4. Belgium.

Can you give a reason why the neutral territory in Africa should be placed under the rule of Belgium?

5. Russia.

(1) What czar prosecuted the war with Turkey in 1877, and what was the occasion of it?

(2) What effect did the assassination of his father have upon the reform policy of Alexander III?

(3) What was his treatment of the Jews, and what was his object?

(4) What advantage did Russia take of the defeat of China by Japan in 1895?

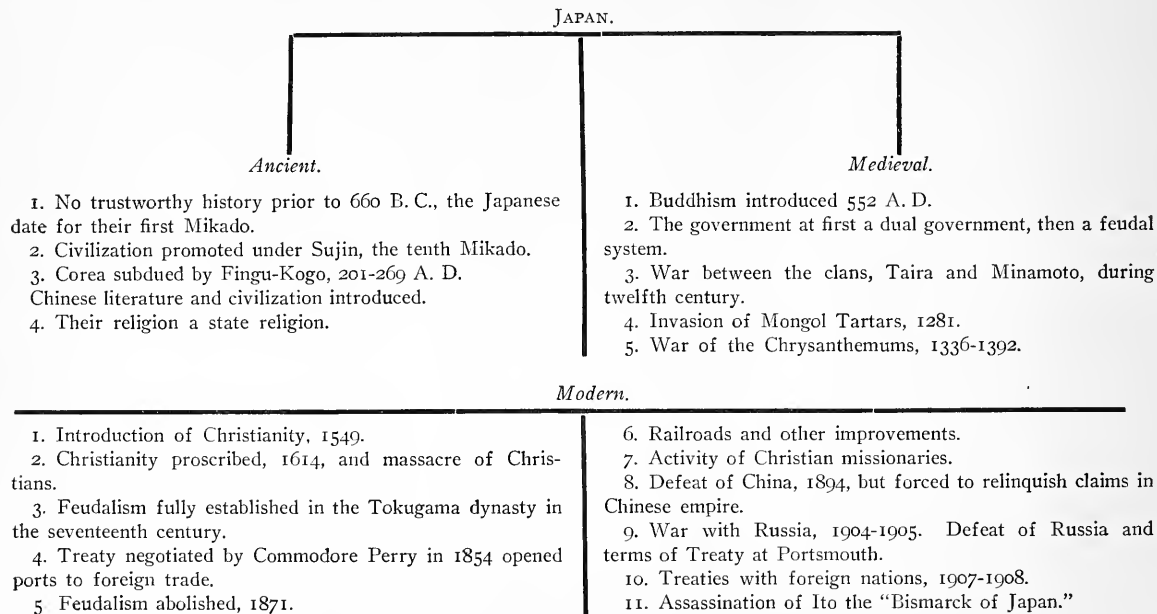
(5) What was the cause of the war with Japan? What prestige did Japan's victory secure to her as a world power? Who suggested the Treaty and where did it take place? What effect did the war have upon Russian trade and prestige?

(6) Trace the tendencies in Russia leading to the demand for representative government.

(7) What significance attached to the three Dumas, and what measures were brought forward?

The general development of the period in these States is seen in various respects. The humiliation of Russia by Japan is one of the great events of the period in distinguishing the remarkable advance of the latter. While defeat has meant the loss of prestige to Russia the war has undoubtedly had its compensations in leading the people to see in what their weakness and strength lie. The demand is for a larger democracy and the establishment of those institutions that will insure greater political liberty. The war with Japan was a discovery

not simply of what Japan had become but of Russian needs, | and the result in the end will be the betterment of that state.



The rapid development of Japan is one of the political spectacles of the present time. She has commanded the attention of the world by her remarkable advance along all lines, and especially by that versatility by which she has adjusted herself to modern conditions and has taken her place among the nations of the world. By the adoption of the methods of Western civilization it is interesting and instructive to contrast her progress with that of China. While Japan, as also China and Africa, belong to the far East, we include these countries in our present study because of the manner in which they are bound up with European interests.

Questions.

1. What elements in the Japanese character and her economic conditions explain her rapid development?
2. Since the abolition of feudalism what has been her prevailing system of government?
3. What necessities demanded the war with Russia?
4. In what respects did her treaties with other nations involve the integrity of and provide for the open door in China?
5. When did she enter into her compact with Great Britain, and what is the full nature of that compact?
6. What was the misunderstanding with the United States and Canada in 1907?
7. How is Marquis Ito regarded as a statesman and what did he do for the present plan of government? What was the motive in his assassination?

CHINA.

Within the past few years considerable interest has been awakened in China relative to her political institutions and system of education. This interest was clearly indicated in 1905 when the Emperor sent a commission to Europe and America to study political institutions and the educational methods of the Western world. When this commission returned they reported "that China was the only large country that was governed without a constitution, and the commission earnestly requested the emperor to issue a decree fixing five years as the limit for adopting a constitutional form of government. In September, 1906, a decree promising a constitution when the people were ready for it was issued." A larger interest in education expressed itself particularly in the establishment of schools for girls.

A strong attitude has been assumed regarding the presence of Japanese and Russian troops in Manchuria, which was expressed by Prince Chung to the effect "that permanent peace in the Far East depends upon the withdrawal of both of these nations from Manchuria and the ultimate withdrawal of Japan from Korea."

Questions.

1. In the very beginning of these studies (Nations of Antiquity) what was said regarding traditionalism, and its influence upon the character and civilization of the Chinese?
2. What was the occasion of the war with Japan in 1894?
3. What steps were taken by the progressive party in China

in 1908 in the formulation of a plan of government and adoption of a Constitution?

4. Who became regent upon the death of the emperor in 1908?

5. What gave rise to the Boxer rebellion, and what is the present attitude of China to the conditions that occasioned it?

6. Does the occupation of other nations in China help or hinder her rapid progress?

AFRICA.

For the full exploration of the Kongo region the African International Association was organized and Stanley was returned to Africa to make a full investigation. After five years of labor he rendered a glowing report of the country and its possibilities. Representatives of fourteen nations met in Berlin in 1885 and passed the Great Charter of the Kongo Free State.

1. What were the provisions of this Charter regarding the slave trade, liquor traffic and free trade?

2. In giving Belgium the right to annex the Kongo States as Belgian territory what responsibilities were laid upon Belgium by the powers regarding the Charter?

3. What is included in the federation, the United States of South Africa?

4. The Constitution of this federation was accepted by the British Parliament and resembles that of Canada. To what peoples is the right of franchise restricted?

The Chart.

The study of the period represented by this chart carries the historical movement to the present moment with the exception of the attention to be given to American history in the following studies. The first thing to do in the review of any period by the chart is to note the beginning and end of the period which it represents, or the historical range. Then the facts relating to each state, and finally a contemporary study of all the events. Thus the history of all the states of the period forms a unit. After this manner the student can quickly reconstruct this closing period in European history by following the analysis of the chart and discover the advance made in the institutions and general development of each State.



American History-Discovery and Colonization

Columbus

Pre-Columbian Discovery

1. *European conditions and exploration.*
2. *Society transformed by the Renaissance.*
3. *Priority of discovery claimed by many nations. Accounts of Norse manuscripts.*

1. *Columbus, 1436-1506. Theories. Assistance. Voyages. Discovery.*
2. *Later discovery. From Cabot to Magellan.*
3. *Spanish conquests.*
4. *French failure in America.*
5. *Elizabethan seamen, Drake, Raleigh, etc.*

Columbian and Later Discovery

Colonization 1600-1763

The South

1. *English Colonization, 1600-1700. In Virginia, Maryland, Carolinas.*
2. *The South in 1700. Social organization, religious and intellectual conditions.*

New England, 1608-1700.

Plymouth. Emigration of Separatists. Mayflower. Massachusetts Bay. Puritan emigration. Connecticut. New Haven founded. The Blue Laws. Union of Providence and Rhode Island. Maine and New Hampshire. Grant toorges and Mason. Survey, 1643-1700. Confederation, Self-government, After the Restoration.

The Middle Colonies, 1609-1718.

The Dutch and English in New York. Rise and fall of New Sweden. The English in Delaware. Pennsylvania. Penn and the Indians. French Colonization, 1589-1718.

The new era. Champlain, the Jesuits, Radisson, Marquette, Joliet, LaSalle. The Struggle for a Continent, 1689-1763.

England and France in America. The final contest. The Treaty of Paris and Proclamation of 1763.

The English Colonies, 1700-1763.

Founding of Georgia. Charter and grants. Dissension and Union. Boundary disputes. Preservation of Charters. Growth of the spirit of union.

AMERICAN HISTORY—DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION

As Columbus, aided by Isabella, started across the seas to test his theories, the modern era had dawned. During the Middle Ages there were no great nations in the modern application of the word. It was a period of ignorance and disorganization with feudalism the dominant political institution. The Renaissance was transforming the intellectual, political and social conditions and bringing about the modern era. Italy was leading Europe in culture. Savonarola was a power in Florence but was passing on to his martyrdom (1498). In the midst of this great revival, and with the beginning of great nations, a new world came to light. France was becoming centralized. The War of the Roses in England had just ended and the two houses were united. In Germany Frederick III, the last emperor to be crowned at Rome, was in the last year of his reign and Maximilian I about to succeed to the throne. Spain was engaged in the work of conquest. The fires of the Reformation were about to light up the skies of Europe. It was the breaking up of the old order. The general stir and revival of learning, new inventions and discoveries were creating a new order. Political and social forces were engaged in the struggle for religious liberty. A new "individualism" manifested itself in the development of a national spirit. Men began to inquire the reason and basis for a world empire, to the maintenance of which the Christian Church had committed itself, and for which it asked the allegiance of the peo-

ples of Europe. This resulted in a tendency to withdraw allegiance from the empire and extend it to the prince of an area more closely bound together by common interests and purposes."

Seeking a new route to India a new continent arose in the pathway of the discoverers. But prior to this the work of discovery had begun. The Azores were discovered in 1441, and Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, believing he had found the path to the Indies.

It was a propitious moment for the discovery of America in whose history and civilization the growing sense of liberty was to be given such an expression. Everything was beginning anew which formed a new epoch in human history. Thus it was under such conditions of change, discovery, revival and revolution that America came upon the stage of action, a new world at the beginning of a new era in the passing away of the old order and the institution of the new. It is thus important that we understand the general trend of the new spirit, a spirit of larger freedom, in which the new continent was born to the world. Already that which America was to exemplify so greatly had taken definite form in the mind of Europe, and under larger impulses she was brought into being.

In our previous studies we have necessarily followed in a general way the course of American history as it has been bound up with the States of Europe. The only way to ap-

proach America is the way to approach any historic period or event, *i. e.*, to follow the course of history until we come to it. It is the only way by which to gain a proper appreciation of

its significance. It is because we have been following the pathway of the ages that we are now prepared to pursue intelligently our study of American history.

ANCIENT AMERICA

Physical

1. One of the oldest land formations of the globe.
2. Climate, rainfall, animal life, vegetation.
3. Minerals. Gold, silver, iron, lead, copper, zinc, coal, petroleum, etc.

4. Divisions

The Atlantic Slope.
The Gulf Slope.
The Great Lakes Slope.
The Pacific Slope.

Inhabitants

1. Little is known of the antiquity of man in America.
2. Mound Builders—ancestors of the Indians.

3. Indian

Four great families—Algonquin, Iroquois, Sioux, Musk-hogean.
Customs. Home, occupation, food, warfare, religion, burial, etc.
Political and social organization.

Exploration

1. Commerce and trade routes to the East.
2. Pre-Columbian exploration. Marco Polo, Diaz.
3. Columbus. Theories, voyages and results.
4. Later explorers. The Cabots, Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Ponce de Leon, Magellan.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The following works are commended to the student: *Ten Colonies* by Thwaites; Channing's *Students' History of the United States*; Fiske's *Discovery of America*; *The European Background of American History* (The American Nation, Vol. I); Hart's *Source Book of American History*; Kingsley's *Westward Ho*.

1. What effect do the physical features of a country such as variety of climate, have upon the character of the people? Are the people who live among the hills a different sort of people from those who live in a prairie country?

2. Is America lacking in any natural resources? Is she dependent upon any other part of the world for any minerals? For food supplies?

3. Why were the American aborigines called *Indians*, and by whom?

4. What were the Mound Builders?

5. Explorations.

(1) What rendered it necessary to find a new route to India? What did the Turk have to do with it?

(2) State the theories of Columbus.

(3) First voyage of Columbus. Cooper's novel, *Mercedes of Castile*.

(4) How did the name *America* come to be applied to the new world?

(5) What events in Spain were contemporaneous with Spanish exploration in America? She came to power in

Europe in 1492; what happened in 1588? Has any region been greatly benefited by the occupation of Spain?

6. French Colonization.

(1) Give three reasons for the failure of French Colonization.

(2) Who were the leading French explorers?

7. English seamen.

England was the last of the great nations to become seriously engaged in American colonization.

(1) Name the five leading seamen in the period of Elizabeth who took up the work of exploration.

(2) Which of these accomplished the most and what special interest attached to Raleigh's expedition?

8. Colonization.

(1) Outline the facts of colonization in the South from 1600 to 1700.

What great event held Europe during the sixteenth century, and what effect did it have upon definite efforts to colonize America?

What were the relations of John Smith to the Virginian Settlement? Trace the early developments in Virginian colonization.

(2) Colonization of Maryland and the Carolinas.

"No fact of colonial history is more admirable than the manner in which the colony of Maryland was founded and conducted by its proprietors."

Trace the events that justify this statement.

(3) What were the religious conditions in England that brought about the colonization in New England?

Who were the Puritans and Separatists, and what was the Mayflower compact?

Trace the general industrial and political developments of this colonization. What interest in religious controversies obtained at this time?

(4) Colonization of the Middle Colonies.

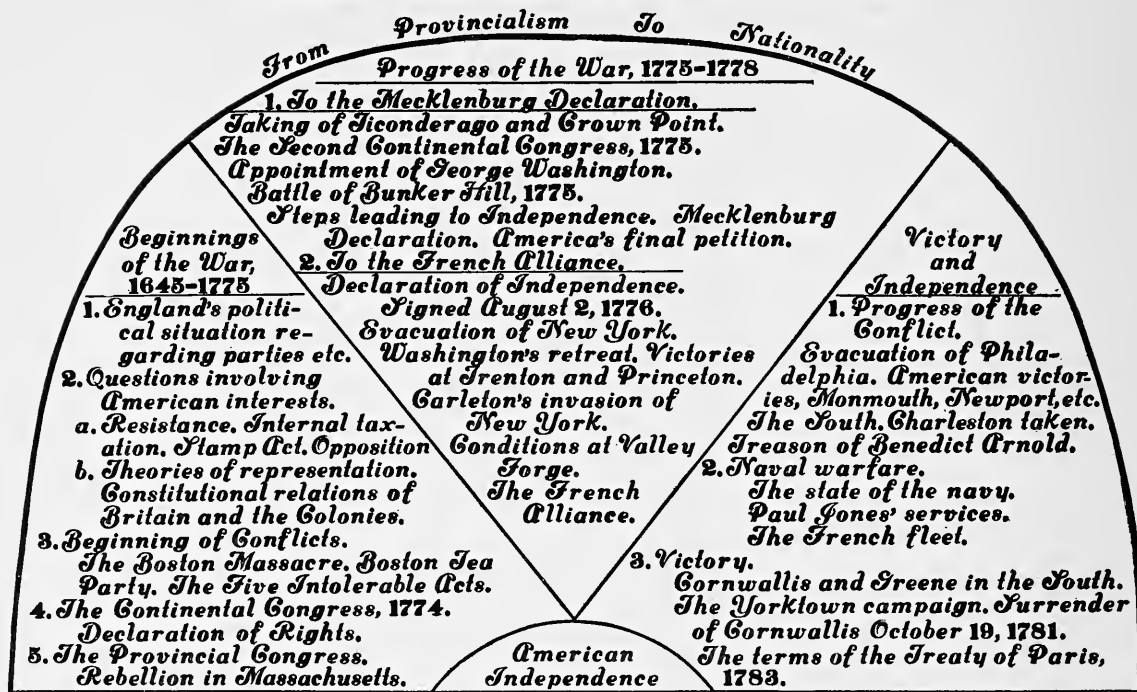
Trace the rise and fall of Dutch colonization.

To what extent was Penn associated with the colonization of Pennsylvania?

(5) Between what two nations was the contest for this continent waged, and what was settled by the Treaty of Paris and Proclamation of 1763?

Give reasons why it was well that this country in its early history came under the power and institutions of Great Britain.

Revolutionary Period



REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

We enter a period of revolution not confined to the great crisis in American history. For over a hundred years England had been passing through a period of political development from the Commonwealth and Protectorate to the Restoration under Charles II and on to the House of Hanover and the three Georges. As elements in this development were the Habeas Corpus Act and the Bill of Rights. In France Absolutism had been carried with a high hand by Louis XIV and failed under the two following monarchs. It brought France to the verge of the French Revolution. The people were awakened to a more intelligent appreciation of things, and the revolution by which America had just accomplished her independence contributed greatly to the awakening, and emphasized the new doctrines of such men as Voltaire and Rousseau.

The student of history should neither minimize the exemplification of the principles of liberty in the American Revolution nor make the mistake of supposing that the proclamation of such principles was something quite new. Back of such a declaration was the political history of the mother country for a considerable period. The weapons used by America were those formed by Great Britain when step by step she established these fundamental principles and had given them a large expression by the time that America brought them to their largest application. The American Revolution was, therefore, but an exercising of what was already operative in British in-

stitutions and not a creation of new ideals. For centuries these principles had been formulating, and by the time of George III had become a clearly defined system of political rights, all of which was as much a part of the political ideas and understanding of the Colonies as of the people across the water.

Three notable documents mark the development of human liberty as pertaining to the Anglo-Saxon race: The Magna Charta, the Declaration of Independence and the Emancipation Proclamation. From the moment that the first of these instruments was framed, in 1215, the course of English liberties was determined for all time. The principles of that document were destined centuries afterwards to cross the sea and find expression in the liberty proclamation of the New World. Between these two great moments this race had labored with its problem and the solution of it appeared in other great enactments such as the Bill of Rights and Petition of Right. Thus the precedent in English political development was already established when the American Colonies framed their historic proclamation. It was the fruitage, the grand resultant of English institutions and was a challenge to Great Britain to acknowledge her own splendid principles. Unless we have discovered this setting of the Declaration of Independence we shall study the history of this movement in a most superficial manner. In this great crisis no new basic principles were created, but simply the application of those already existing

and well defined. There were Englishmen who believed in American independence as much as did those who signed our great document. The issue of the struggle was another victory

for the principles of English institutions established by the mother country in the course of her historic development.

PRINCIPLES OF LIBERTY.

GREAT DOCUMENTS

Magna Charta

1. Signed at Runnymede by King John in 1215.
2. A guarantee of freedom and just liberties of the people.
3. Protection of the rights of the individual submitted to fair trial by a jury.
4. The standard of a growing freedom and a safeguard of English liberties.

Petition of Right

1. Framed in 1628.
2. Revenues submitted to Parliament.
3. Provided against arbitrary and illegal official actions.
4. The Second great step in the formation of the English Constitution.

Bill of Rights

1. Drawn up in 1689.
2. Put an end to all claim of divine right.
3. Provided for the rights of Parliament and the rights of the people regarding the crown and Parliament.
4. The final step in the formation of the Constitution and provisions for English liberty.

Declaration of Independence

1. Its adoption by twelve colonies July 4, 1776.
2. Five fundamental propositions:
 - Political and social equality.
 - These rights grounded in the moral constitution of the individual.
 - Governments instituted to secure these rights.
 - Power of government derived from the consent of the governed.
 - Justification for the formation of a new government if necessary to these principles.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The student will find the following works helpful: Burke's speech *Conciliation With America*, *The Repeal of the Stamp Act*, by Pitt; Hart's *Formation of the Union*, Frothingham's *Rise of the Republic*, chs v-vii.; Fisher's *The American Revolution*, Foster's *Century of American Diplomacy*.

1. To the Rebellion in Massachusetts.

(1) What had been the policy in England respecting restraint of colonial trade and manufactures?

(2) Describe in a general way the questions that led to the Revolution such as Resistance, Internal Taxation, Stamp Act and Representation.

(3) From what standpoint was England technically right and justified in attempting to compel the colonies to an acceptance of her position?

(4) What importance attached to the Continental Congress in 1774? The Provincial Congress?

(5) At what point did the war begin?

2. To America's final petition.

(1) What were the principal acts of the Second Continental Congress?

(2) Lecky says, "To the appointment of Washington, far more than to any other single circumstance, is due the ultimate success of the American Revolution." Describe the character

of Washington as a man of great judgment, self-control, dignity and firmness. Give illustrations of these characteristics.

(3) In what was the Battle of Bunker Hill both a defeat and a victory for the Americans?

(4) State some of the steps leading to independence beginning with the Mecklenburg Declaration.

3. To the French Alliance.

(1) Who framed the Declaration of Independence? State its five leading principles. Can you recall any other great Declaration of Independence by any other nation prior to this time?

(2) Describe the military operations to the winter at Valley Forge. What were some of the great battles, defeats and victories of the American forces? In what sense was this a period of suspense?

(3) What were the French motives in giving America the support of her alliance?

4. To the surrender of Cornwallis.

(1) Describe the military operations to the taking of Charleston. With what great disadvantages did the British have to contend? Which side had the greater advantage?

(2) Explain the treason of Benedict Arnold. What were the grounds?

(3) What was the state of the American navy and what

great services were rendered the cause of independence in naval warfare?

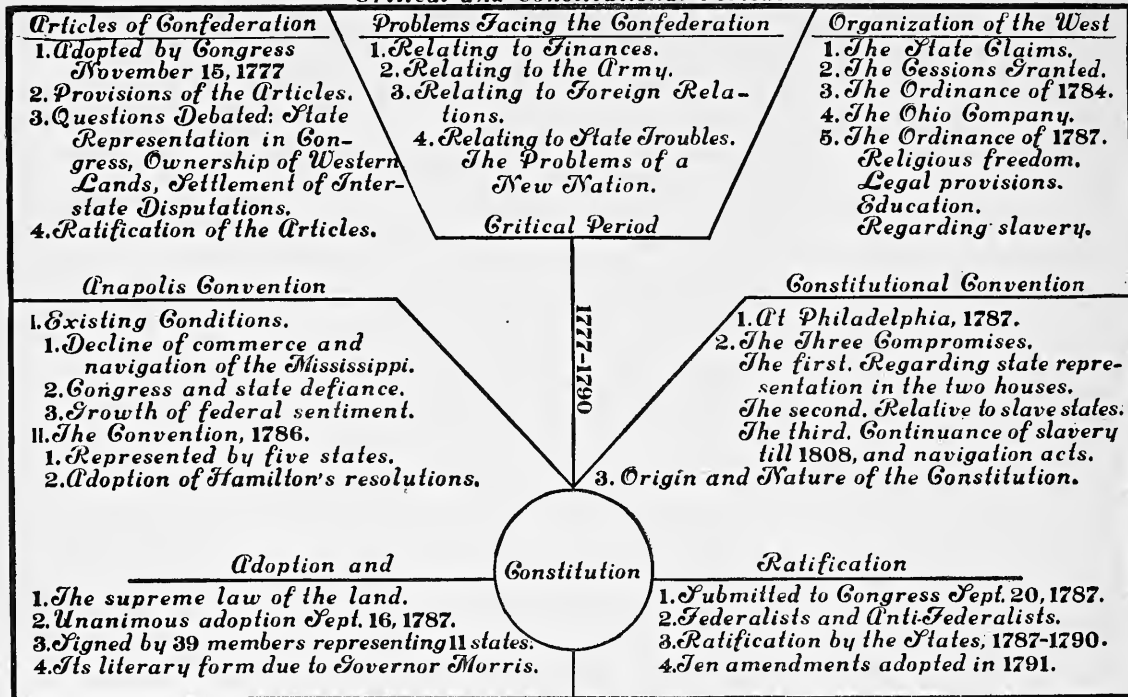
(4) Trace the military operations from the warfare of Cornwallis and Greene in the South to the surrender of Cornwallis, at Yorktown.

(5) What were the terms of the Treaty of Paris?

The Chart.

Note that the Chart describes the movement from Provincialism to Nationality. Columbus discovered a new world, but Washington became the father of a new nation. "Providence left him childless that his country might call him father." By the chart review the various periods of the conflict, and the great moments of the entire period, and note to what all lines converge.

Critical and Constitutional Periods



CRITICAL AND CONSTITUTIONAL PERIODS

In our American studies two things have been distinguished: that the work of exploration and discovery produced a new world, and passed through a colonial period; that the struggle for independence gave to the world a new nation to create new ideas, principles, forces and opportunities. At that moment, the moment when Cornwallis handed his sword to Washington, the history and progress of humanity were given a new determination. The civilization of the world tending to a certain point was now to come to its larger fruition. What England had established as great principles has come to fruition in great results. When King John was compelled to sign the Magna Charta, in 1215, he helped to frame the Declaration of Independence. It might even be said that through America England was to accomplish institutionally what she could not accomplish by herself, that on this soil her principles were to come to their largest expression and realization. She is indeed the mother country, and her child is to apply those principles bequeathed to it by virtue of that independence which she wrested from the parental hand.

Let us be careful to hold things in their proper connection, to see in what sense America is an effect as well as a new cause in the world's unfolding. We have attempted at every point to distinguish the interrelations of the nations and guard against the danger of holding any of them in isolation. His-

tory is a unit passing from infancy to maturity by the co-operation of all the parts. The contribution of each has been essential to the whole. What a mistake it would be to lose sight of this fact and forget all that has preceded that made this new nation possible, and determined its birth by the struggles and developments of the ages.

This new nation, having passed through a certain formative period, stands face to face with its problems and its future as does any young person leaving the parental roof to plan and live his life. It remains to be seen whether he has been instructed in sound principles of conduct, and with what ability and wisdom he shall invest them in the business of life. From the formative he passed to the critical stage of his career, and that is just what America did at Yorktown. Such a period is fraught with vital importance because at this point must be settled the adoption of those principles for the government of the future. These are worked into a Constitution, a best judgment of things and a declaration of procedure.

In this new situation America had the advantage of all the past. It was a tremendous asset, while before her lay tremendous liabilities. The inheritor of the ages in governmental history she creates a Constitution as the rudder of this new ship of state, and it remains to be seen whether it is a true helm in its essential constituents and judiciously handled.

THE CONSTITUTION.

A call was issued by Congress to the States to be represented at a convention in Philadelphia "for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation, and reporting to Congress and the several legislatures such alterations and provisions therein as shall, when agreed to in Congress and confirmed by the States, render the Federal Constitution adequate to the exigencies of government and the preservation of the Union." The convention met May 14, 1787. To preside over its deliberations George Washington was called from Mount Vernon. The distinction and ability of its members made this convention one of the most remarkable, if not the most remarkable convention in the nation's history. Madison, the foremost figure on the floor of the convention, has been called the "Father of the Constitution."

A new government, different in form and feature from the Confederation, was favored by Washington, Madison and Hamilton. The matter was brought to a head by the resolutions of Randolph to the effect, "That a national government ought to be established, consisting of supreme legislature, executive and judiciary," which decided "that the proposed constitution should establish a government not of the States but of the people—for a government, to be supreme, must have authority over the individual citizens within its domain." The question of state sovereignty involved in the discussion brought the convention to the verge of dissolution, which was only saved by the compromise proposed "giving states equal

representation in the upper house and proportional representation in the lower."

A second compromise had to do with slave states. The leading representatives of Virginia favored emancipation of the slaves, while Georgia and the Carolinas would refuse to support a constitution that interfered with that institution. The escape from this difficulty lay in the compromise proposed by Madison "that five slaves be equivalent to three free persons as a basis for representation of the Southern States in Congress." The compromise was adopted but it was not foreseen how it was to involve serious considerations in the future history of the nation.

The next question of vital importance to the convention was the importation of slaves and the power to be placed in the hands of Congress regarding the regulation of commerce. The compromise adopted secured the consent of the North to the continuance of the slave trade till 1808, while the South agreed that Congress should pass navigation acts by a majority vote. "It is noteworthy that in the debate upon this compromise no one attempted to justify slavery upon principle. It was considered a necessary expedient for the development of the resources of the South, but it was believed by many that the emancipation of the slaves in all the states was close at hand."

The following interesting incident closes the *Journal of the Constitutional Convention* by Madison: "Whilst the last members were signing, Doctor Franklin, looking towards the

president's chair, at the back of which a rising sun happened to be painted, observed to a few members near him that painters had found it difficult to distinguish in their art a rising from a setting sun. 'I have,' said he, 'often and often in the course of the sessions and the vicissitudes of my hopes and fears as to its issue, looked at that behind the president without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting; but now at length I have the happiness to know that it is a rising and not a setting sun.'"

Questions.

The following works will be found helpful in the study of this period: *Critical Period of American History*, pp. 50-211, by Fiske. *The State*, pp. 469-473, by Wilson. Hinsdale's *American Government*, chs. vii-x. Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, vol. i, chs. i-iv, xxxi-xxxv.

1. The Critical Period.

Note carefully the two tendencies of this period—one toward individual liberty as exhibited in weak central government, the other toward a strong central government by centralization of power.

(1) What degree of sovereignty was allowed each state by the Articles of Confederation?

(2) What requirement did these Articles lay upon the states in the matter of abiding by the decisions of Congress?

(3) What financial problems confronted the Confederation?

(4) How was the West organized by the cession of Western territory to the government?

(5) What provision was made by the Ordinance of 1787 regarding religious liberty, legal rights, rights of Indians, relation of territory to the Union, admission of states and prohibition of slavery?

2. Constitutional Period.

(1) What fundamental relation did the new government sustain to the forms of the old?

(2) Is state sovereignty incompatible with federal sovereignty?

(3) Would it have been propitious to attempt a definite settlement of the question of slavery in the Constitutional Convention? What **might** have been the consequence? Can a permanent government be established upon compromises?

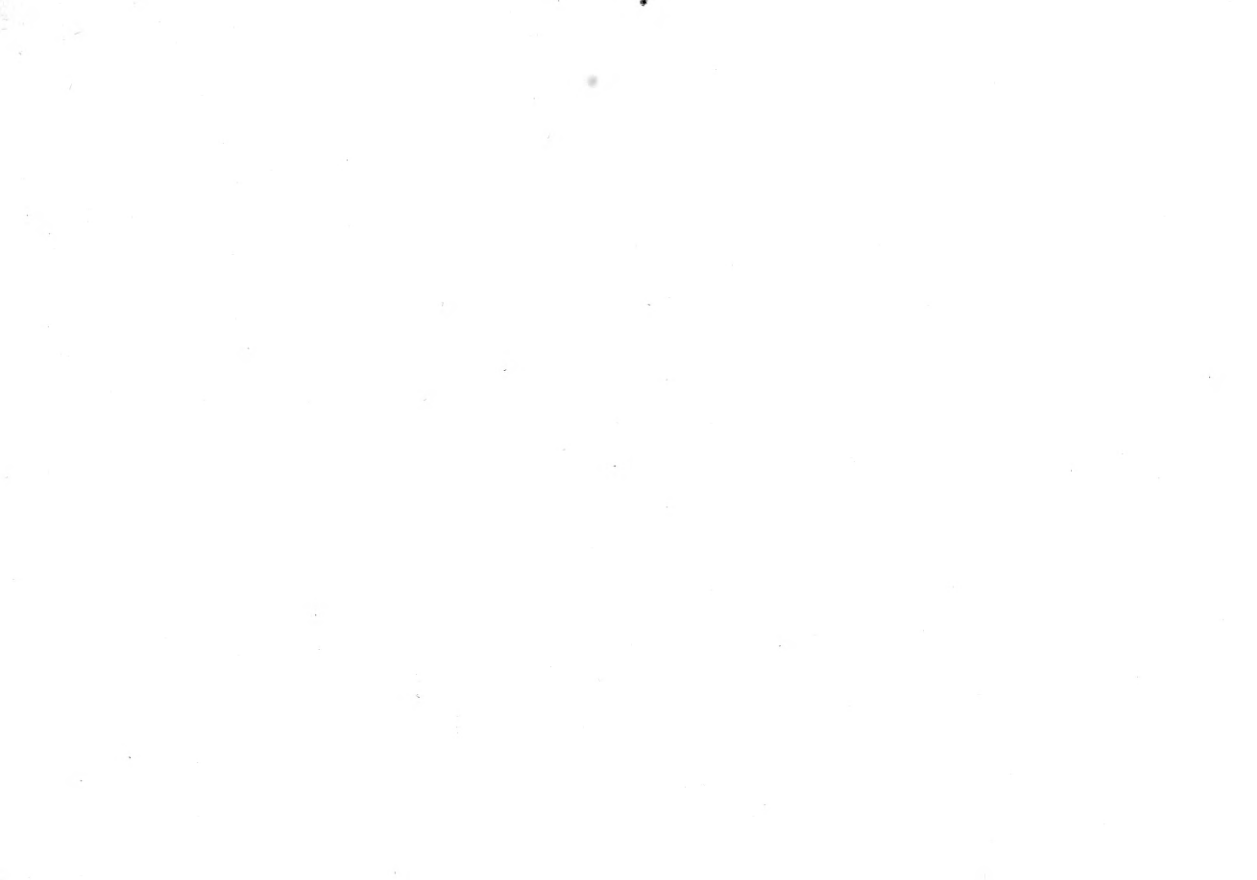
(4) What were the points at issue between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists? Who were some of the leading Federalists? Fiske calls the *Federalist*, the collection of essays containing the positions of the Federalists, "the most profound and suggestive treatise on government that has ever been written."

The Chart.

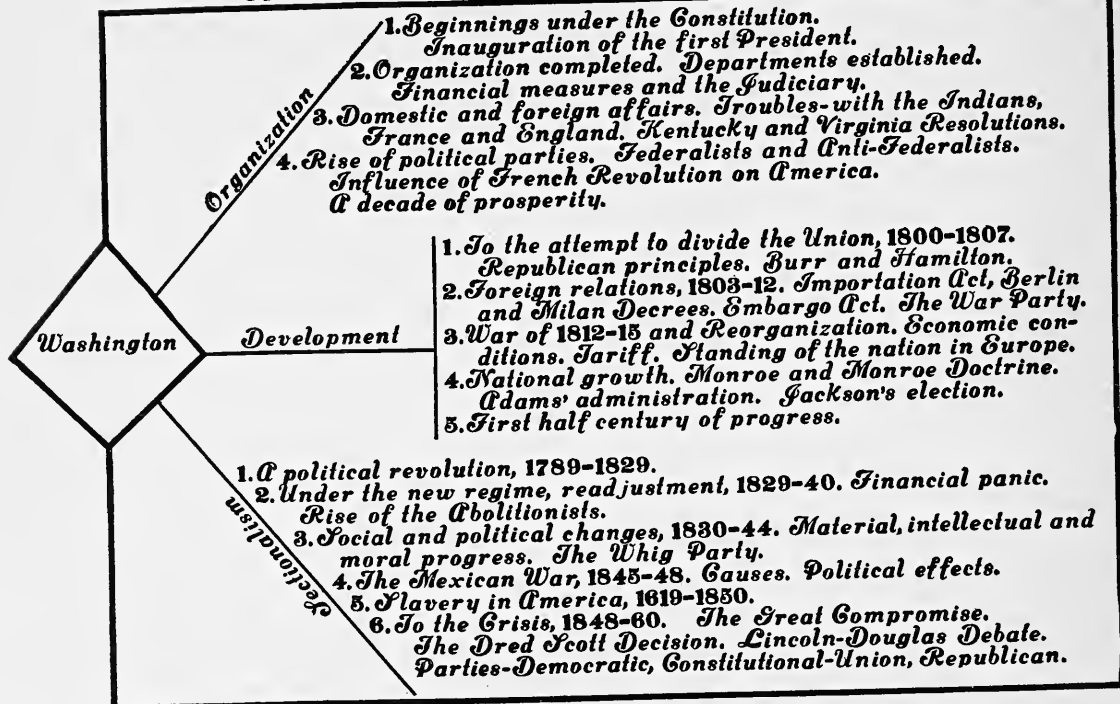
The leading facts of the two periods are outlined by the Chart and the design should enable the student not only to

quickly review the facts but to hold them in memory. Note the length of the entire period as given in the center of the

Chart. After studying the text books on this subject test the thoroughness of the work by filling in the outline of the Chart.



To the Civil War-Organization, Development, Sectionalism.



ORGANIZATION, DEVELOPMENT, SECTIONALISM

With its constitution formed, adopted and ratified the new nation took its place among the nations of the world under a definite form of government. It was like all other great beginnings. It drew to itself the attention of Europe and especially of Great Britain. Would the new political enterprise succeed? Set forth from her English moorings and launched upon the sea of independent national procedure this new Ship of State must enter the billows and weather the gales with her own hand upon the helm. She has boxed her compass and set her sails, and her future is all before her. How well her keel has been laid, how solid her bulwarks, how seaworthy in all essential particulars are for the future to determine. Whether it is a safe political enterprise or a great speculation that has thrown out to the breeze its banner, Republicanism, remains to be seen. It is a thing that has been fought for. It has been baptized with the best blood of the people. Every bolt was fashioned upon the anvil of conflict. Patriotism is stitched into every sail. It may be discovered that within her is some defective timber that out in the high seas may occasion concern. But with all her hopes she is afloat, the breath of heaven in her sails and the hand upon the wheel.

This period, from 1788 to 1860, might be regarded as formative, it being a period of organization and development. Again, it might be regarded as transitional. The period lies between independence and unity. Fighting for liberty against another

State is not the same thing nor the same sort of a crisis as fighting for her component self, for her preservation as a national unit. Conditions exist that are yet to give the nation the greatest concern, to threaten the foundations of the union and become disintegrative. The very constitution by which the states are federated is yet to be appealed to as a ground of separation.

With a continent of such extent and such resources committed to her America holds in her hands a colossal opportunity. But along with this are colossal responsibilities and problems. To organize her affairs and establish her institutions upon a sound basis will call into requisition all the fortitude and wisdom she can bring to the task. It is the greatness and not the smallness of things that appals one. Great possessions make great demands for their best use and disposition. Again, this nation does not live unto itself any more than does any nation. The world is a unit and America must contribute to the whole of which she is a part. Others have contributed greatly to her and she must pay her debt to the world. She is not to be a miser hoarding up her untold riches for the comfort and satisfaction of a single nation. Her very independence but emphasizes her dependence and reciprocation. To take her place among the nations is to recognize the international. In this is both her opportunity and her obligation. To better the institutions of the world political, social and

educational, she must create and sustain them and upon them rear her national structure.

During this first period of national existence there was much to test the strength and stability of the new nation: troubles with the Indians, the attempt to divide the Union, the War of 1812, the political revolution, financial panic, the Mexican War and the growth of sectionalism and widening the breach. First battles, whether those of an individual or a na-

tion, are of peculiar importance. They distinguish traits, characteristics, tendencies. They indicate elements of weakness and strength. Dealing with the problems determines the course of procedure and specifies dominant motives and purposes. Let us follow the course of the new nation during this period and see in what manner it will panoply her for the critical moment she is approaching.

PRESIDENTS.

ADMINISTRATIONS.

Washington 1789-1797	Revenue Bill and Naturalization Law. Indian War and Whisky Rebellion. Admission of Vermont, Kentucky and Tennessee. Treaties with England and Spain. Invention of the cotton gin. Foreign events, French Revolution.
Adams 1797-1801	Alien and Sedition Acts. Treaty with France. Locomotive plow invented. Death of Washington.
Jefferson 1801-1809	Embargo Act. Tripoli War. Louisiana acquired. Ohio admitted. Lewis and Clark Expedition. Invention of steamboat and steam dredge.
Madison 1809-1817	Non-Intercourse Act. Indian War. War of 1812. Treaty of Ghent. Louisiana and Indiana admitted. Washington burned. Mexican uprising. Invention of breech-loading rifle.
Monroe 1817-1825	Monroe Doctrine. Tenure of Office Act. Seminole War. Florida acquired. Treaty with Canada. Missouri Compromise. Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri admitted. First steam voyage across the Atlantic.

Adams 1825-1829	Slavery in New York abolished. Death of Adams and Jefferson. First threshing machine. Passenger train.
Jackson 1829-1837	Bank Message. Force Act. Black Hawk and Seminole Wars. Treaty with Brazil. Anti-Slavery in New England. Independence of Mexico and Texas. Invention of typewriter and use of chloroform. Admission of Michigan and Arkansas.
Van Buren 1837-1841	Sub-Treasury Bill. Seminole War. Friction match invented. Telegraph. Indians placed in Indian Territory.
Harrison-Tyler 1841-1845	Annexation Bill. Dorr Rebellion. Webster-Ashburton Treaty. Texas and Florida admitted. Telegraph line and use of ether. Postage stamps.
Polk 1845-1849	Wilmot Proviso. Mexican War. Treaty of Hidalgo. Iowa and Wisconsin admitted. Discovery of gold in California. Invention of sewing machine and Hoe printing press.
Taylor-Fillmore 1849-1853	Omnibus Bill. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. Fugitive Slave Law. Death of Calhoun, Webster and Clay. California admitted. Cuban Revolution.
Pierce 1853-1857	Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Border Warfare. Treaty with Japan. Type setting machine invented. Underground railroad. Lopez Expedition.
Buchanan 1857-1861	Revolutionary Message. John Brown's Raid. Mormon Insurrection. Treaty with China. Dred Scott Decision. Secession. Minnesota, Kansas and Oregon admitted. Invention of sleeping car and Atlantic Cable. War in Mexico.

Questions and Topics for Study.

The student will find *A Century of American Diplomacy*, by Foster and Hart's *Formation of the Union*, helpful.

1. Organization.

(1) Was it Washington's military ability that was the leading influence in his election?

(2) Lodges' *George Washington*, vol. ii.

(3) State what is meant by Mason and Dixon's Line.

(4) What was the import of the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions?

(5) What were the contentions of the Federalists and Anti-Federalists during this period?

(6) The social conditions of the country. *History of the United States*, vol. ii, ch. viii, by Andrews.

2. Development.

(1) Jefferson's Policy. Hart's *Formation of the Union*, pp. 176-183.

(2) State the leading principles of the Republican Party.

(3) *How We Bought the Great West*. *Scribner's Magazine*, Nov. 1903.

(4) Why did the Federalists and Spain oppose the purchase of Louisiana?

(5) What parties opposed the embargo? How did England and France regard it?

(6) Could the War of 1812 have been declared with equal

propriety against France? Was anything gained by the war?

(7) The Missouri Compromise. Schurz's *Henry Clay*, vol. i, ch. viii.

(8) The Monroe Doctrine. Foster's *A Century of American Diplomacy*, ch. xii.

(9) What were the general conditions as to territory, population, inventions, industrial enterprises, education and literature at the close of our first half century in 1826?

3. Sectionalism.

Wilson's *Division and Reunion*, pp. 23-92, will be found helpful.

(1) Was the abolishing of cabinet meetings by Jackson illegal?

(2) Was the doctrine of nullification inconsistent with the Constitution? Why did the South more than the North favor state sovereignty?

(3) Why the Mexican War and what great importance attached to its political results?

(4) Trace the history of slavery in the United States from 1619 to 1850.

(5) Who organized the first anti-slavery society? Name some of the great abolitionists.

(6) What was the Dred Scott Decision, who rendered it, and why did the free states oppose it?

(7) What were the questions discussed in the Lincoln-Douglas Debate?

(8) Distinguish the three parties at the close of this period.



From the Civil War to the Present Time

Secession and the Civil War

1. Secession. To Lincoln's Inauguration.

Attitude of the Secessionists.

Attitude of the Unionists.

The Confederacy organized. South

Carolina Ordinance of Secession.

The compromise attempted.

Inauguration of Lincoln.

2. The War.

From the fall of Fort Sumter to the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863.

Military operations of 1861.

The war in the West, South West and at the center of operations, 1862.

From the Emancipation Proclamation to the end of the war, May 1865.

Gettysburg, Vicksburg, Chickamauga. The

Grand Campaign.

Assassination of Lincoln. Social and political results of the war.

1860-1865

1866-1876

Emancipation
Proclamation
Lincoln

Period of Reconstruction

1. Reconstruction from 1863-66. Beginnings of Executive and Congressional Reconstruction.

2 Reconstruction Acts and reconstructed States.

3. From Grant's Reconstruction to the redemption of North Carolina and the end of Reconstruction.

4. The nation's first centennial, 1876. Political, educational, religious and material development.

Period of Expansion

To the Spanish-American War

1. Hayes' Administration, 1877-81.

2. Garfield-Arthur Administration, 1881-85.

Issues of the campaign. Assassination.

3. Cleveland's Administration, 1885-89.

4. Harrison's Administration, 1889-93.

5. Cleveland's Administration, 1893-97.

Financial stringency. Venezuelan dispute.

The United States a World-Power

1. McKinley's Administration, 1897-1901.

Spanish-American War. Philippine insurrection. Imperialism. Assassination.

2. Roosevelt's Administration, 1901-09. Isthmian and Panama Canals. Alaskan boundary

Russo-Japanese Treaty.

3. Taft's Administration, 1909-13. Congress and the Tariff. The Nicaraguan trouble. Troubles in Mexico.

4. Wilson's Election and Inauguration, 1913.

The new Party.

Issues of the campaign.

FROM THE CIVIL WAR TO THE PRESENT TIME

Great crises, in one form or another, come to all nations. Their importance and the proportions they assume are determined by the principles and interests involved, the nature of the struggle to which they may give rise, and the final issue. England passed through a crisis in the English Revolution, as did France in the French Revolution. Europe passed through a crisis in the Napoleonic Era, and it was a critical period in American history the struggle for independence and coming to nationality. But the great American crisis lay in her civil war. From the beginning of her national life a century had not passed when she was plunged into the greatest civil war of history to preserve the Union which she had wrested from Great Britain. Two great principles were involved: the federation of all the American States under one flag and government, and the abolition of slavery. To accomplish this was necessary to realize all for which she struggled from 1775 to 1781. For the South to succeed in forming a confederation and separate from the Union would be, as one British statesman declared, nothing less than a national calamity. Again the emancipation of the slave rested upon a fundamental law clearly expressed in the Declaration of Independence. That great doctrine was destined to be the corner-stone in the second great document pertaining to the principle of liberty. The one demanded the other. America could not consistently issue the one declaration, and enter into a mighty conflict to sustain its basic principle, and hold in slavery a human being.

We remarked in a former chapter the significance of the Magna Charta in its bearing upon American independence; the connection between the two great American documents should be especially clear.

Special emphasis, during these studies, have been laid upon the philosophy of history, that is, the discovery of the grounds or basic conditions in historical development and the investment of events with their fundamental significance. This principle should be carried into these American studies and in its application to show how American ideals must become operative in certain situations or as ideals become extinct. It is for us to see the dominance of certain well defined principles in our national history; to see how these have directed national aims and issues, have driven us to war, created institutions and have made possible our civilization. It should enable us to see how that underlying principles which we acknowledge cannot be indefinitely ignored or set aside when the occasion arises for their application. In the period we now enter we see how that problems that entered into the framing of the Constitution rise in the pathway of the nation for final solution. A compromise may be a temporary, but never an ultimate, solution.

In this closing period of American studies we trace the course of events through the struggle for the Union, the period of Reconstruction, the development and expansion of the nation and the United States as a world-power.

PRESIDENTS.

ADMINISTRATIONS.

Lincoln- Johnson 1861-1869	Emancipation Proclamation. Amnesty. Income Tax Law. Civil Rights Bill. Civil War. Burlingame Treaty. Admission of West Virginia, Nevada, Nebraska. Atlantic Cable laid. Assassination of Lincoln.
Grant 1869-1877	Salary Act. Modoc and Sioux Wars. Treaty of Washington. Ku Klux Klan. Colored senator. Colorado admitted. Telephone invented. Foreign-Franco-German War.
Hayes 1877-1881	Anti-Chinese Bill. New Chinese Treaty. Invention of phonograph and steam heating. Electric light.
Garfield- Arthur 1881-1885	Civil Service. Chinese Bill. Treaty with China. Apaches captured. Assassination of Garfield. Flying machine.
Cleveland 1885-1889	Interstate Commerce Act. Dawes' Bill. Anarchist riots. Extradition Treaty. Charleston earthquake. Washington, Montana and Dakotas admitted. Death of Grant.
Harrison 1889-1893	McKinley Tariff. Silver legislation. International Copyright Law. Samoan Treaty. Reciprocity Treaty. Sioux War. Idaho and Wyoming admitted. Pan-American Congress.
Cleveland 1893-1897	Columbian Exposition. Venezuelan Dispute. Income Tax. Wilson Bill. Sherman Law. Coal and Railroad Strikes. Utah admitted. Hawaiian Revolution.

McKinley- Roosevelt 1897-1905	Panama Canal. Northern Securities. Chinese Exclusion Bill. Arbitration Treaty. Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. Spanish American War. Philippine War. Hawaii Islands, Porto Rico, Guam, Philippines and Samoa acquired. Wireless Telegraphy. Assassination of McKinley.
Roosevelt 1905-1909	Pure Food Law. Meat Inspection Bill. Hay-Varilla Treaty. Springfield Riot. Aeroplane. Oklahoma admitted. Panama Canal. Death of Cleveland. Foreign-Russo-Japanese War.
Taft 1909-1913	Tariff Law. Corporation Tax. The Champlain and Hudson-Fulton Celebrations. The President's Journey. In 1789 the Senate numbered 26 and the House 65. In 1909 the Senate numbered 92 and the House 391.
Wilson 1913-	Campaign of 1912. A new party—the Progressive Party. William Jennings Bryan Secretary of State.

Questions and Topics for Study.

1. To the Emancipation Proclamation.

Rise and Fall of the Southern Confederacy by Jefferson Davis. Rhodes' *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850*, Vol. III, pp. 1-114.

(1) What were the political issues in the campaign of 1860?

(2) What was the contention in the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession as the ground of the Southern Confederacy?

(3) What was the immediate cause of the war, secession or

slavery? Was the South right in its interpretation of the Constitution and basing its action upon that interpretation?

(4) With what did the war open?

(5) Military movements of the war. Dodge's *Bird's-eye View of the Civil War*.

(6) *The Crisis*. By Churchill.

(7) Trace the military movements of the second year of the war. What were the gains and losses?

(8) Stonewall Jackson. Cooke's *Surry of Eagle's Nest*.

(9) When did Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation? Why not before?

2. From Chancellorsville to Appomatox.

(1) Campaigns in the West. Grant's *Personal Memoirs*, Vol. I, p. 422; Vol. II, pp. 1-88.

(2) What were the great decisive battles of this period? In which of them existed a great crisis? See Wilson's *Division and Reunion*, pp. 233-238.

(3) Juvenile fiction. *With Lee in Virginia* by Henty.

(4) In what condition did the war leave both North and South?

(5) Do you think that the South would have emancipated the slaves in time, and if so would it have spared the country a civil war?

(6) *Abraham Lincoln* by Morse. How would you compare Lincoln with Washington?

3. Period of Reconstruction.

Scott's *Reconstruction During the Civil War*. Hart's *Source Book*, Nos. 127-132.

(1) Trace Executive and Congressional Reconstruction.

(2) The work of Grant to the end of Reconstruction.

(3) The panic of 1873. Dewey's *Financial History of the United States*, pp. 370-372.

(4) The Centennial Exposition. *History of the United States in Our Own Time*, ch. viii, by Andrews.

4. Expansion to the War with Spain.

Adams and Trent's *History of the United States*, pp. 473-542.

(1) Describe briefly the issues of the campaigns of 1876, 1880, 1884, 1888, 1892, 1896.

(2) What was the effect of the McKinley Tariff, the Wilson Bill and Sherman Law? What caused the financial stringency during Cleveland's second administration?

(3) *The Trust Problem* by Jenks.

(4) *Labor Problems* by T. S. Adams.

5. From McKinley's election to the present time.

(1) What is the object in the construction of the Panama Canal? Do you think it should be opened freely to the nations?

(2) What principle was involved in the war with Spain? Was it Imperialism?

The War with Spain, by Lodge.

Our Navy in the War with Spain, by Spears.

What is the present political status of Cuba and the Philippines?

The Inhabitants of the Philippines, by Sawyer.

(3) The United State a World-Power.

What contributed mainly to this national prestige? *A Century of Expansion*, by Johnson.

(4) What has been the general prosperity of the country during the past ten years, and what special problems confront us?

(5) In the last campaign (1912) what new party polled

4,168,566 popular votes and 88 electoral votes? What were some of the radical provisions in its platform?

The Colonial and Revolutionary periods developed a literature by such writers as Bradford, Winthrop, the Mathers, Anne Bradstreet, Jonathan Edwards, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Timothy Dwight, Barlow, Charles Brockden Brown the first American to make literature a profession.

The Republic produced such writers as Irving, Cooper, Bryant, Taylor, Whitman, Emerson, Longfellow, Hawthorne, Lowell, Holmes, Whittier, Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, Poe, Lanier, and an extended list of writers since the Civil War. This literary activity has brought forth a distinctive American literature which has voiced the deepest thoughts and convictions of the people and has stimulated the new nation to lofty ideals. As Longfellow said: "Great men stand like solitary towers in the city of God, and secret passages running deep beneath external nature give their thoughts intercourse with higher intelligences, which strengthens and consoles them, and of which the laborers on the surface do not even dream."

We have traced our national course to the present moment. The rest is all before us. The history of the world has taught us the great truths of human development, the onward march of the ages, man seeking his larger self-realization. The race has been steadily advancing to its fuller self-consciousness marked by its growing civilization. We have seen how nations are born and how they die, and have traced the progress of

the race from East to West. On the basis of fundamental law all has proceeded. It has not been a chance procedure, but an orderly movement determined by the constituent elements of human nature under the guidance of an All Wise Providence. The problems are not all solved and we are creating new ones for future solution. It may be that to rectify our mistakes another age will be thrown into the confusion and bitterness of conflict, but in its emergence to behold a purer humanity, a better world.

The outlook for America has been set forth in the following simple optimistic statement with which we close these studies: "Notwithstanding the grave problems in government and finance confronting the nation, she rejoices in her strength and looks into the future with the confidence of finding a happy solution for all the questions which may be encountered. The public conscience is being quickened; public opinion is constantly assuming a broader, saner and healthier tone, and the American people are gradually emerging from the period of materialism which is inseparable from the development of a new country, and are giving more consideration to the higher aspects of life. Each year more attention is being given to those forces which tend to the building of character, and less to those whose purpose is merely the accumulation of wealth and world power. As the result of a century of silent revolution, the United States has emerged from provincialism into nationality, with a broader outlook and higher aspirations. 'It is not in a splendid government supported by aristocratic establishments that people will find happiness, or their liberties,

protection ; but in a plain system void of pomp—protecting all and granting favors to none—dispensing its blessings like the dews of heaven, unseen and unfelt save in the freshness and

beauty they contribute to produce. It is such a government that our people require—such a one in which our states may reign for ages to come, united, prosperous and free.’”

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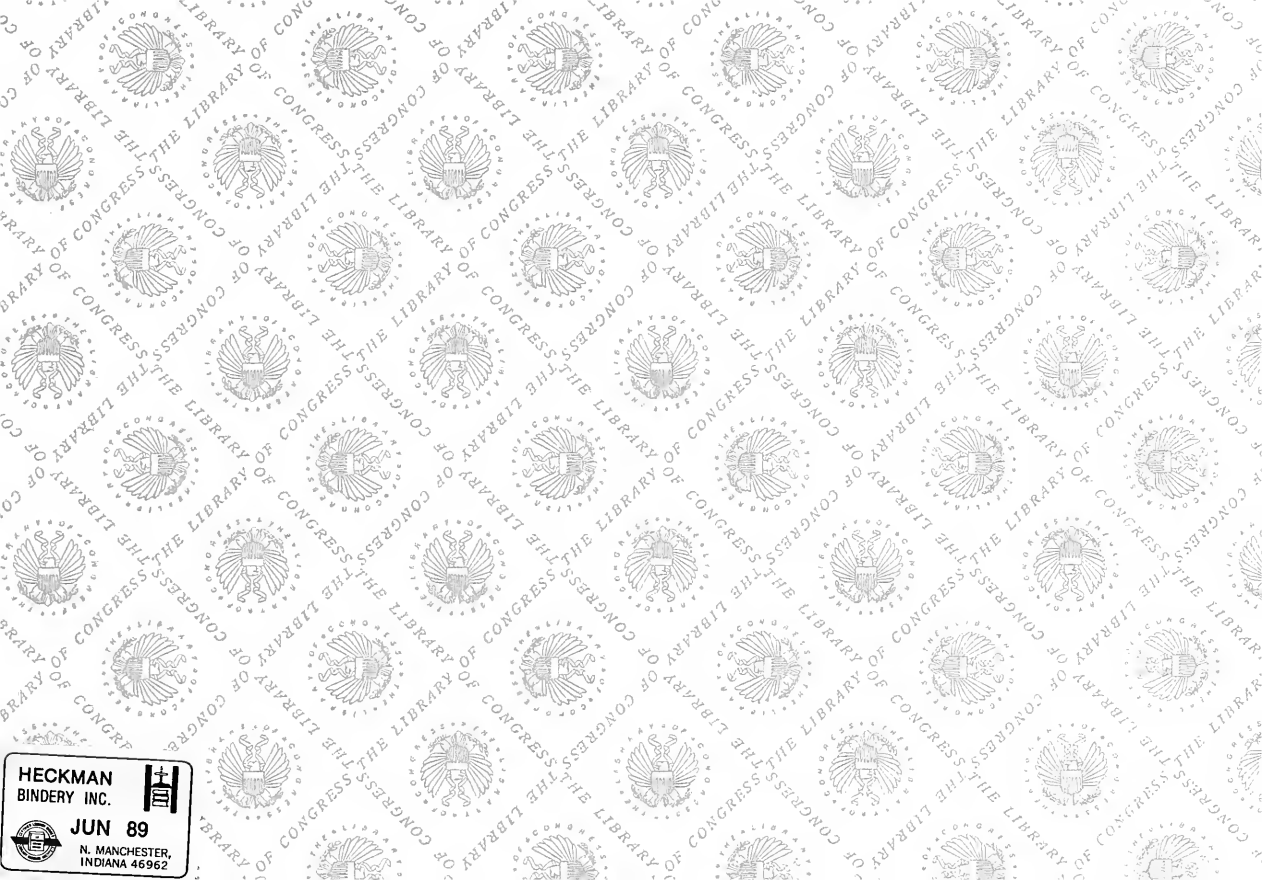
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